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ABSTRACT

Six booklets are designed to assist special educators, principals, teachers and parents to find information on how learning disabled and other handicapped children can be placed and taught in the least restrictive environment. Volume I is a catalog of books, articles, references, programs, and projects on mainstreaming and learning disabilities. Section I lists authors dealing with specific aspects of mainstreaming, while Section II contains full references arranged alphabetically by author (or title if no author appears). Volume II, by W. Cruickshank, is titled "Mainsteaming--Education for All Children." The author outlines guidelines for changing placement from the most to the least restrictive and lists characteristics of a mainstreaming program. Volume III is the French version of Volume II by Cruickshank. In the fourth volume of the series, "Mainstreaming in Quebec--Teacher Competencies in an Integrated Classroom," D. Sokolyk presents the viewpoint of the university teacher trainer and addresses the question of teacher competencies with a review of the literature and a report on a survey of Quebec educators. Volume V contains three articles--"Pour Une Reformulation de la Problematique de L'Integration" by A. Gelinas; "Ou en Est-on Avec L'Integration au Quebec?" by M. Lavallee; and "Les Facteurs de Perception de Soi et de Perception par Autrui dans le Processus D'Integration Scolaire" by H. Caglar. A final volume, "Mainstreaming in Action--A Model" by A. Wener and R. O'Shaugnessy, describes one school board's experience in implementing a mainstreaming program in Montreal. (SB)

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Mainstreaming and Learning Disabilities

Karin David
Editor, Mainstreaming Series
GEMS

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L'INTEGRATION

REFERENCES

L'Intégration et les troubles d'apprentissage: un répertoire

Mainstreaming and Learning Disabilities: a Reference Guide

MAINSTREAMING

Carol Katz, M.Ed.

REFERENCES

L'Intégration et les troubles d'apprentissage: un répertoire

Mainstreaming and Learning Disabilities: a Reference Guide

Carol Katz, M.Ed.
Lansdowne Centre
Montréal

AQETA QACLD

Volume I

Ce volume fait partie d'un recueil préparé pour l'**AQETA: L'INTÉGRATION ET LES TROUBLES D'APPRENTISSAGE.**
This volume is one of a series prepared for the **QACLD LIBRARY COLLECTION: MAINSTREAMING AND LEARNING DISABILITIES.**

Vol. I: **L'Intégration: Un RÉPERTOIRE de RÉFÉRENCES / A REFERENCE GUIDE on Mainstreaming** (Carol Katz, Montreal)

Vol. II: **MAINSTREAMING: EDUCATION FOR ALL CHILDREN** (William M. Cruickshank, University of Michigan)

Vol. III: **L'INTÉGRATION, C'EST RENDRE L'ÉDUCATION ACCESSIBLE À TOUS LES ENFANTS** (William M. Cruickshank, Université du Michigan)

Vol. IV: **MAINSTREAMING IN QUEBEC: TEACHER COMPETENCIES IN AN INTEGRATED CLASSROOM** (Dorothy Sokolyk, McGill University)

Vol. V: **L'INTÉGRATION AU QUÉBEC: TROIS PERSPECTIVES** (Huguette Caglar, Université de Montréal / Arthur Gélinas, Université du Québec à Rimouski / Marcel Lavallée, Université du Québec à Montréal)

Vol. VI: **MAINSTREAMING IN ACTION: A MODEL** (Albert Wiener, Rosemary O'Shaughnessy, Baldwin Cartier School Commission - secteur anglais - Montreal)

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II. Index alphabétique auprès les noms des auteurs — References by author (alphabetical)

REMERCIEMENTS

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C.K.

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C.K.

UN RÉPERTOIRE DE RÉFÉRENCES

Catalogue détaillé de livres, articles, ouvrages de référence, programmes et travaux sur l'intégration et les troubles d'apprentissage.

A REFERENCE GUIDE

A comprehensive catalogue of books, articles, references, programs and projects, on mainstreaming and learning disabilities.

Carol Katz

INTRODUCTION

Depuis quelques années, l'"intégration" fait l'objet de nombreuses discussions dans le monde de l'éducation. Ce répertoire a été conçu pour aider les éducateurs à l'enfance en difficulté, les directeurs d'école, les professeurs et les parents désireux de se renseigner sur le classement et l'éducation des enfants ayant des troubles d'apprentissage — ou autres difficultés — dans un "milieu qui soit le moins restrictif possible".

Ce répertoire a été compilé à partir de nombreuses sources: livres, opuscules, articles, exposés et thèses de doctorat. Durant la première étape, nous avons étudié le système ERIC en nous aidant d'un ordinateur, et consulté les résumés de textes de référence ainsi que les fichiers des bibliothèques universitaires montréalaises; nous avons également tenu compte des suggestions des éducateurs francophones et anglophones. Nous avons recueilli d'autres données dans les bibliothèques des commissions scolaires régionales françaises et anglaises, de même qu'en nous adressant à de nombreux organismes canadiens et américains intéressés par l'enfance en difficulté. La lecture de divers ouvrages et le dépouillement des journaux locaux à la recherche des plus récents développements nous ont permis d'accumuler d'autres références. De fil en aiguille, nous avons ainsi découvert toujours plus d'auteurs et d'ouvrages, ce qui se traduit par un total de plus de mille citations.

Les références sont présentées alphabétiquement: d'après les noms des auteurs, l'année de publication est ajoutée dans le cas d'un auteur qui aurait publié plusieurs ouvrages ou articles. Chaque fois que la chose s'est avérée possible, les citations respectent le format établi par la American Psychological Association pour les références bibliographiques.

Bien que nos recherches aient porté essentiellement sur les troubles d'apprentissage, nous n'avons pas négligé pour autant les domaines connexes: questions philosophiques, implications juridiques, enseignement personnalisé, attitudes maître/élève, formation des enseignants.

Un index par sujet complète le tout et regroupe la majorité des auteurs cités. Les titres, remarques et brèves notes ont servi de base à la classification, de façon à faciliter au maximum la consultation de ce répertoire.

Carol Katz
Montréal, janvier 1981

FORWARD

In recent years 'mainstreaming' has become a hot issue amongst educators. This reference guide has been created to assist special educators, principals, teachers and parents to find information (and further leads) on how children with learning disabilities — and other exceptionalities — can be placed and taught in the "least restrictive environment". It is not a complete bibliography, but rather a guide for locating information. Accordingly, I have tried to assemble a large amount of information from many sources, and to arrange it by topic, for easier consultation.

This guide has been compiled from many sources: books, pamphlets, articles, papers and doctoral dissertations. It began with a computer search of the ERIC system, and consultation of abstracting reference texts, along with card catalogues of university libraries in Montreal, and suggestions on further materials from English and French-speaking educators. Further materials were found in libraries of local English and French school boards, and from contacting many Canadian and American organizations interested in the special child. References were taken from reading books and monitoring local newspapers for recent developments. All these procedures led to further authors, titles and publishers, so that eventually over 1,000 useful citations were collected.

The references are cited alphabetically by author, unless one author has published a number of books or articles which then appear by year of publication. The citations follow, wherever possible, the format established by the American Psychological Association for bibliographical references.

Although the major thrust of this research has been in the area of learning disabilities, references on related topics are cited: philosophical issues, legal implications, individualized instruction, teacher/student attitudes and teacher training.

An Index by Subject is provided, incorporating most of the authors cited. These classifications were made by reference to titles, annotations and brief notes. The purpose of this Index is to give convenient and relevant access to the guide.

Carol Katz
Montreal, January 1981

SECTION I

RÉFÉRENCES PAR SUJETS

Cette section a été mise au point afin d'aider le lecteur à trouver des références sur des aspects spécifiques de l'intégration.

Sous chaque rubrique pertinente, vous trouverez une liste d'auteurs qui traitent de cet aspect.

Pour trouver la référence complète, veuillez vous rapporter à la SECTION II, intitulée "RÉFÉRENCES PAR AUTEURS".

1. L'INTÉGRATION: UNE INTRODUCTION
- A. Survol
- B. Définition / Philosophie / Théorie
- C. Étiquetage

2. L'INTÉGRATION ET LES TROUBLES D'APPRENTISSAGE

3. L'INTÉGRATION ET LES AUTRES PROBLÈMES
- A. Déficients mentaux légers
- B. Émotivement perturbés
- C. Surdoués
- D. Handicapés auditifs
- E. Handicapés physiques
- F. Handicapés visuels

4. L'INTÉGRATION ET LE SYSTÈME D'ÉDUCATION
- A. Préscolaire
- B. Élémentaire
- C. Secondaire
- D. Formation professionnelle / Activités de loisir
- E. Éducation supérieure

5. L'IMPLANTATION DE L'INTÉGRATION: RÔLES ET RESPONSABILITÉS
- A. Administration
- B. Salles de ressources et professeurs ressources
- C. Développement de curriculum
- D. Instruction individualisée
- E. Formation et perfectionnement des maîtres
- F. Attitudes professeur/étudiant
- G. Rapports entre pairs
- H. Acceptation sociale

6. L'INTÉGRATION ET LA LOI
- A. Politique / Lois / Cours
- B. Loi Publique No. 94-142 (É.U.)

7. L'INTÉGRATION: RÉFÉRENCES CLÉ
- A. Auteurs clé
- B. Maisons d'édition clé
- C. Média et matériel didactique clé
- D. Projets et programmes clé
- E. Recherches clé

REFERENCES BY SUBJECT

This section has been organized to assist the reader in finding references on specific aspects of mainstreaming.

Under each relevant subject heading you will find a list of authors who deal with that aspect.

To find the full reference, turn to SECTION II, entitled "REFERENCES BY AUTHOR".

1. MAINSTREAMING: AN INTRODUCTION
- A. Overview
- B. Definition / Philosophy / Theory
- C. Labeling

2. MAINSTREAMING AND LEARNING DISABILITIES

3. MAINSTREAMING AND OTHER EXCEPTIONALITIES
- A. Educable Mentally Retarded
- B. Emotionally Disturbed
- C. Gifted
- D. Hearing Impaired
- E. Physically Handicapped
- F. Visually Impaired

4. MAINSTREAMING AND THE EDUCATION SYSTEM
- A. Preschool
- B. Elementary
- C. Secondary
- D. Vocational / Recreational
- E. Higher Education

5. IMPLEMENTING MAINSTREAMING: ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES
- A. Administration
- B. Resource Rooms and Resource Teachers
- C. Curriculum Development
- D. Individualized Instruction
- E. Preservice and Inservice Training
- F. Teacher/Student Attitudes
- G. Peer Relationships
- H. Social Acceptance

6. MAINSTREAMING AND THE LAW
- A. Policy / Laws / Courts
- B. Public Law No. 94-142 (U.S.A.)

7. MAINSTREAMING: KEY REFERENCES
- A. Key Authors
- B. Key Publishing Houses
- C. Key Materials and Media
- D. Key Projects and Programs
- E. Key Research

1. L'INTÉGRATION: UNE INTRODUCTION
1. MAINSTREAMING: AN INTRODUCTION

A. SURVOL / OVERVIEW

Below
Banbury
Barbacovi
Bardon
Barnes
Baron
Baskin
Bertness
Blesonier
Bitzer
Brenton
Charest
Childs
Cormany
Cromwell
Cruickshank
Curry, K.
Doran
Elen
Ferraid
Gallagher
Gessing
Goldbert
Graubard
Grotsky
Grzyikowicz
Hallahan
Heckinger
Hein
Heffleman
Henson
Hewett
Johnson
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Kupfer
Kirk
Klein
Kochman
Leitch
Lerner
Mann, F.H.
Martin, E.W.
Mercer
Metsker
Meyen
O'Donnell
Paul
Payne, J.S.
Peterson
Planakis
Rauth
Reynolds
Rossmiller
Safford
Sapir
Sarason
Schoning
Smith, R.M.
Stephens, T.M.
Stutt
Turnbull
Volkmore
Warfield
Weintraub
Worcester
Zufall

B. DÉFINITION / PHILOSOPHIE / THÉORIE – DEFINITION / PHILOSOPHY / THEORY

Abeson
Adamson
Adelman
Andelman
Anderson,
Apffel
Bateman
Bauch
Birch
Blumberg
Boland
Brekke
Brown
Budoff
Burello
Calhoun
Cameron
Carpenter
Cartwright
Caster
Chaffin
Christie
Cobb
Cocelle
Coursen
Cruickshank
Dailey
Dapper
Decker
Delp
Dembinski
Deno
Diamond
Duclos
Dunn
Ensher
Fisher
Fromong
Gallagher
Gearheart
Gickling
Giroux
Glass
Goldman
Greer
Grotsky
Hannah
Hawkinson
Henderson
Henson
Hewett
Hobbs
Hottlet
Iano
Jansen
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Jones, R.
Jordan
Jordan, T.E.
Joynt
Kaufman
Kawahara
Kendall
Keogh
Kupfer
Kirp
Kokaski
Kraft
Laberge
Lambert
Lautrer
Lilly, M.S.
Lilly, S.L.
Lord
Lutte
Mann, L.
Mann, P.H.
Martin, E.W.
Maurer
McCarthy
Messels
Melcher
Milazzo
Milbauer
Miley
Millery, J.G.
Milofsky, C.D.
Milofsky, R.D.
Mises, R.
Molloy
Monaco
Moreau, J.F.
Muller, P.
Mullins, J.B.
Nelson
Newman
Nyquist
O'Donnell
Ohrtman
Orlando
Pedrini
Piazzo
Planakis
Porter
Priddy
Rauth
Rieger
Reynolds
Roberts
Robichaud
Roubineck
Ryor
Saint-Jacques
Sapir
Sarason
Scriven
Smith, J.O.
Stein
Ternisse
Thibert
Thiffault
Turney
Vells
White
Xatruch
Zneimer

C. ÉTIQUETAGE – LABELING

Affleck
Bardon
Culkin
Foley
Forness
Gillung
Graham
Guskin
Henri
Hobbs
Hughes
Jones, R.L.
Kirk
Kroth
Padover
Rieger
Smith, I.L.
Spoger
Trotter
Willenberg

2. L'INTÉGRATION ET LES TROUBLES D'APPRENTISSAGE
2. MAINSTREAMING AND LEARNING DISABILITIES

Abbott
Adamson
Adelman
Affleck
Ainscow
Alley
Anderson
Ardi
Bagley
Barclay
Burger
Barnett
Bateman
Bauch
Bauer
Beaulieu
Bechtel
Berryman
Bersoff
Bischoff
Blair
Blankenship
Bloomer
Boeck
Boersma
Bone
Borg
Bouchard
Braun
Bruininks
Bryan
Budd
Bunch
Bunschuh
Burg
Byrnes
Cahn
Calabrese
Calhoun
Castleberry
Cawley
Chaiken
Chapman
Chow
Christenson
Christiansen
Christopolis
Clements
Consilie
Cotterell
Cox
Cruickshank
D'Alonzo
Davis
Decker
DeJulio
Deno
Diamond
Diem
Doerr
Dunlop
Edmonds
Egner
Fairchild
Flynn
Foley
Forget
Forness
Franklin
Frick
Frith
Gale
Gardner
Gear
Geddes
Gerrard
Gerrity
Gershman
Ghodsian
Gillung
Gladstein
Glazzard
Goodman
Gordon
Grassi
Greenlee
Griffiths
Grzynkowicz
Guerin
Gugerty
Gunderson
Hackman
Hagerty
Hainsworth
Hale
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Hallenbeck
Hammill
Hannah
Harris
Haun
Hawkins
Jayball
Haydan
Heath
Hedges, W.
Heidman
Henson
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Heward
Hewett
Hoek
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Hutton
Ito
Jensen
Johnson, V.M.
Jones, B.
Jones, S.N.
Kendall
Kender
Kirby
Kirsch
Kosko
Kratoville
Kueffler
Kumar
Kunzweiler
LaBrie
LaGreca
Landers
Landry
Larson
Laurie
Le Vor
Lazer
Leahy
Leitch
Lennon
Lepre
Levesque
Lewis
Ley
Lockwood
Macy
Mann, P.H.
March
Mayhall
McCaffery
McCarthy
McCombs
McHenry
McKellip
McKay
Metsker
Meyen
Miller, M.B.
Miller, T.L.
Molloy
Montgomery
Mooney
Moore
Moracco
Morrow
Mosby
Moses
Mowery
Murphy
Nagrodsky
Neale
Nystrom
O'Brien
Ochoa
Olson
Orlando
Ozer
Palmer
Parish
Paroz
Paston
Pelland
Phipps
Plantz
Porter
Post
Powell
Ramey
Rawson
Reger
Reiss
Rentz
Reynolds
Ribner
Richardson
Rieth
Ritter
Robichaud
Rooney
Rust
Rutherford
Sabatino
St. John
Sapir
Sauer
Savage, D.G.
Sawyer
Schenk
Schiff
Schleifer
Schwartz
Schworn
Scofield
Scranton
Sehler
Semmel
Serif
Serwer
Shaw
Siegel
Singleton
Skindrud
Skrtic
Smith, M.D.
Sparks
Speece
Stearns
Stellern
Stephens
Stewart
Strang
Sussman
Swartz
Swatsenburg
Taylor, P.S.
Thiffault
Tindall
Trester
Tull
Turnbull
Turner
Vance
Vicente
Vogel
Walberg
Warnick
Washburn
Wasserman
Weckler
Weiner
Weiss
Wenier
Widlake
Wilkers
Williams
Witty
Wood
Zedler

3. L'INTÉGRATION ET LES AUTRES PROBLÈMES
3. MAINSTREAMING AND OTHER EXCEPTIONALITIES

A. DÉFICIENTS MENTAUX LÉGERS – EDUCABLE MENTALLY RETARDED

Barclay
Barger
Bateman
Birch
Bischoff
Bloom
Edwards
Gadson
Ghodsian
Gillung
Gladstein
Glazzard
Grzynkowicz
Harris
Heron
Hoek
Jensen
Lambert
Larson
Lepire
McCaffery
Moore
Mulchberger
Palmer
Powell
Rentz
Schenk
Semmel
Siegel
Skindrud
Swetsenberg
Touges

B. ÉMOTIVEMENT PERTURBÉS – EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED

Bauch
Borg
Denio
Gerrity
Gillung
Glazzard
Grassi
Heron
Hewett
Kirby
Kunzweiler
Martin
Nystrom
Powell
Schenck
Semmel
Siegel
Wasserman
Weckler

C. SURDOUÉS – GIFTED

Kender
Paston
Plowman
Reynolds
Stovall
Tempest
Whiteford
Williams

D. HANDICAPÉS AUDITIFS – HEARING IMPAIRED

Blair
Cohen
Hein
Molloy
Nelson
Powell

E. HANDICAPÉS PHYSIQUES – PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED

Ardi
Glazzard
Molloy
Powell
Savard

F. HANDICAPÉS VISUELS – VISUALLY IMPAIRED

Powell
St. John

4. L'INTÉGRATION ET LE SYSTÈME D'ÉDUCATION
4. MAINSTREAMING AND THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

A. PRÉSCOLAIRE – PRESCHOOL

Abbadie
Abelson
Bradfield
Braun
Christopherson
Cohen
Glodoner
Granato
Guralnick
Hayden
Jones, S.N.
Jordan
Jordan, T.E.
Joynt
Klein
Laberge
Laurent-Delchet
Lewis, E.G.
Lillie, D.L.
Mann, M.E.
Martin
Mayer
Meyers
Neale
Nelsworth
Podell
Raph
Raver
Sandusky
Sauer
Trester

B. ÉLÉMENTAIRE – ELEMENTARY

Anderson
Bagley
Barclay
Barnett
Bischoff
Bishop
Bradfield
Bruininks
Chapman
Charlebois
Christopolis
Cohen
Cruickshank
Diamond
Flynn
Forness
Gale
Gerrard
Gershman
Ghodsian
Gillung
Gladstein
Glockner
Guerin
Hawke
Hawkins
Houck
Hutton
Jordon
Kirsch
La Brie
Lansdowne
Larson
Lautier
Lazor
Lepire
Lockwood
Lowenbraun
Mayhall
McDaniel
McHenry
McKalip
McKay
Mooney
Moracco
Moses
Nagrodsky
O'Brien
Olson
Orlando
Palmer
Phipps
Pieper
Plaisance
Plantz
Powers
Rameu
Reiss
Reynolds
Richardson
Ritter
Rusalem
Sapir
Scarborough
Scofield
Scranton
Semmel
Skrtic
Snyders
Stearns
Stephens
Swatsenbarg
Walberg
Wener
Wilkers
Williams

C. SECONDAIRE – SECONDARY

Abbott
Alley
Barnett
Birchoff
Bishop
Brassard
Budd
Cahn
Chaiken
Crespo
Cruickshank
Diamond
Egner
Fowler
Friedman
Gerrard
Gerry
Goodman
Guerin
Houck
Howard
Jordan
Kendall, W.S.
Kunzweiler
Lambert
Laurie
Lazar
Lockwood
March
McCarthy, R.M.
McKay
Mitchell
Mooney
Moracco
Mosby
Olson
Pelland
Plaisance
Powers
Ramey
Reynolds
Richardson
Rosenberg
Rusalem
Sapir
Semmel
Siegel
Stephens
Stewart
Tilker
Tull
Turner
Vogel
Walbert
Weiss
Wener
Whiteford
Wilkers
Zigmond

D. FORMATION PROFESSIONNELLE / ACTIVITÉS DE LOISIR VOCATIONAL / RECREATIONAL

Bodley
Bunschuch
Christenson
Curtis
Dahl
Demos
Feichtner
Geddes
Gugerty
Kendall
Kingsley
Kumar
Lennon
May
Reed
Reid
Richardson, S.A.
Rusalem
Schleifer
Stein
Tindall
Washburn
Williams

E. ÉDUCATION SUPÉRIEURE – HIGHER EDUCATION

Ardi
Best
Fishell
Gerlach
Grosenick
Gust
Howsam
Mann, M.
Tseng
Van Dyke
Weckler

5. L'IMPLANTATION DE L'INTÉGRATION: RÔLES ET RESPONSABILITÉS
5. IMPLEMENTING MAINSTREAMING: ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

A. ADMINISTRATION – ADMINISTRATORS

Adamson
Biklen
Burg
Cahn
Connor, L.E.
Duclos
Fitzpatrick
Foster
Gadson
Gehm
Melcher
Nuschy
Payne, R.
Reynolds
Schworm
Stephens, E.
Stephens, T.M.
Taylor, P.S.
Tull
Vergason
Vicente
Weiner

B. SALLES DE RESSOURCES ET PROFESSEURS RESSOURCES – RESOURCE ROOMS AND TEACHERS

Adamson
Adelman
Affleck
Anderson
Bach
Bagley
Bauer
Chaiken
Cot
DiSipio
Frankel
Franklin
Hammill
Hawisher
Glavin
Grickling
Heller
Heward
Hoek
Houck
Ito
Jenkins
Krasner
Lewis
Lon
Lott
Macy
Mann
Mayhall
Montgomery
Paroz
Platt
Post
Ramey
Reger
Rust
Sabatino, D.A.
Sawyer
Sheare
Singleton
Snapp
Speece
Stearns
Stewart
Taylor, P.D.
Walberg
Warrick
Weiderholt
Weiner

C. DÉVELOPPEMENT DE CURRICULUM – CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Angeles
Connolly
Hawkins-Shepard
McHenry
Meisels
Meyers
Ross
Shelby
Vance
Widlake
Williams
Wood

C. INSTRUCTION INDIVIDUALISÉE – INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION

Adelman
Aiello
Alley
Alper
Anderson
Armstrong
Banbury
Calabree
Chandler
Christiansen
Coleman
Consilia
Cotterell
Edmonds
Egner
Farrald
Frostig
Gardner
Glavin
Hackman
Jafner
Jarvey
Guskin
Heidmann
Jensen
Kirby
Kirsch
Kosko
Krasner
Krug
Landry
Lockwood
Marver
O'Brien
Pipes
Post
Prehm
Rauth
Rieth
Rutherford
Safer
Savage, J.F.
Schenk
Schwartz, L.
Shrag
Skindrud
Snow
Stellern
Sussman
Turnbull
Weiner
Wener
Yang
Zedler
Zigmond

E. FORMATION ET PERFECTIONNEMENT DES MAÎTRES
PRESERVICE AND INSERVICE TRAINING

Adamson
Adelman
Aiello
Alberto
Arnekler
Baker
Barresi
Benjohn
Best
Blackhurst
Blankenship
Bloom
Brassard
Brekke
Carlson
Castleberry
Chaiken
Chow
Christiansen
Christie
Christopolis
Clark
Cochrane
Connor
Courtnage
Delesalle
Deno
Diggs
Dollar
Fiorentino
Fishell
Forget
Foster
Fowler
Fox
Frank
Frein
Gallien
Glass
Grenier
Grosenick
Harris
Haughton
Heath
Howard
Hutson
Isaacson
Johnson, W.
Jones, B.
Kosko
Lowenbraun
Lynch
Mann, P.H.
Marshall
Mathey
McKenzie
Musso
Olson
Ozer
Papparikou
Parker
Pasanella
Pipes
Prehm
Pugmire
Quarrar
Redden
Reynolds
Schorn
Semmel
Shaw
Singleton
Skindrud
Skrtic
Smith, R.E.
Stellern
Thiagarajan
Trester
Wolden
Weckler
Werke
Whiteford
Yates
Zigmond

F. ATTITUDES PROFESSEUR/ ÉTUDIANT – TEACHER/STUDENT ATTITUDES

Adamson
Aiello
Barresi
Beuck
Bleck
Bloom
Brooks
Brophy
Canfield
Castleberry
Chapman
Chow
Christopolis
Deno
Di Sipio
Edwards
Fiorentino
Foley
Gearheart
Gilberts
Guerin
Howard
Johnson
Johnson, W.E.
Johnston
Jones, R.L.
Jordon
Kavanagh
Kendall
Larsen
Laurie
Leahy
Mandal
Massie
Mathey
McKalip
Miller, T.L.
Mitchell
Monaco
Moore
Orlansky
Palmer
Parish
Phelps
Pieper
Redden
Roberts
Roberts
Rosenberg
Ross
St. John
Sawyer
Schorn
Semmel
Shotel
Simpson
Singleton
Skrtic
Smith, I.L.
Sussman
Tull
Vlasak
Warner
Weinberg
Wilkers
Willard
Yates

G. RAPPORTS ENTRE PAIRS – PEER RELATIONSHIPS

Barclay
Bruininks
Bryan
Edmonds
Gladstein
Gunderson
La Greca
McKalip
Mehrota
Neale
Paston
Scranton
Sheare
Smith, M.D.
Strang
Villars

H. ATTITUDES PARENT/MAÎTRES – PARENT/SCHOOL RELATIONSHIPS

Anderson, R.J.
Berman
Burg
Chiba
Clark
Cleveland
Crary
De Julio
Deno
Hannah
Gorham
Gust
Hayden
Hedges
Johnson, W.E.
Kennison
Kosko
Kratoville
Loute
Puhek
Reynolds
Turner
Vicente

I. ACCEPTATION SOCIALE – SOCIAL ACCEPTANCE

Boucher
Bruininks
Bullock
Caouette
Chalvin
Dockrell
Gottlieb
Grosenick
Jones, M.
La Greca
Leduc
Litsky
Mehrota
Mazzaro
Newberger
Prouty
Saint-Jacques, M.
Semmel
Shears
Sussman
Tougas

6. L'INTÉGRATION ET LA LOI
6. MAINSTREAMING AND THE LAW

A. POLITIQUES / LOIS / COURS – POLICY / LAWS / COURTS

Abbott
Abeson
Affleck
Andelman
Apffel
Ardi
Ballance
Baron
Beaulieu
Blatt
Bouchard
Courson
Diana
Divoky
Dupont
Fiske
Gearheart
Gickling
Gilhool
Glover
Goodman
Greene
Johnson
Kipfer
Kirp
La Vor
McCarthy
Milofsky
Ottina
Parks
Pasanella
Prehm
Reynolds, M.C.
Richardson
Rieth
Rocham
Ross
Russo
Savage, D.G.
Soeffing
Swartz
Tractenberg
Trotta
Turnbull, H.R.
Walbert
Weintraub
Wolfensberger
Young

B. LOI PUBLIQUE NO. 94-142 (É.U.) – PUBLIC LAW NO. 94-142 (U.S.A.)

Abbott
Affleck
Anderson, R.J.
Ardi
Ashley
Barbacovi
Berman
Blaschke
Chandler
Chiba
Dahl
Demos
Dunst
Fitzpatrick
Hagerty
Harvey
Gearheart
Gilhool
Goodman
Krasner
Lynch
Marshall
Marver
Massie
May
Milofsky, D.
Peary
Pipes
Rauth
Reynolds
Richardson, S.O.
Rieth
Senf
Shaw
Swartz
Turnbull, H.R.

7. L'INTÉGRATION: RÉFÉRENCES CLÉ
7. MAINSTREAMING: KEY REFERENCES

A. AUTEURS CLÉ – KEY AUTHORS

Birch, J.W.
Bishop, M.E.
Budoff, M.
Caouette, C.E.
Cawley, J.F.
Cherest, G.
Charlebois, R.
Clements
Consilia
Cruickshank, W.M.
D'Alonzo
Denio
Forget
Gearheart, B.R.
Giroux, N.
Glavin, J.
Grosenick, J.K.
Grzynkowicz, W.
Guerin
Hein, R.D.
Jones, R.
Laberge, D.
Labregere
Landry, R.
Lautier, G.
La Vor
Leduc, C.
Leroux, J.P.
Levesque, D.
Loignon, H.C.
Mann, P.H.
McCarthy, J.
Miller
Paul
Peterson, R.L.
Rieger, R.
Reynolds, M.C.
Robichaud
Sebastino, D.A.
Saint-Jacques, M.
Semmel, M.
Thibert
Thiffault
Turnbull
Weintraub, F.J.
Weiss, H.G.; Weiss, M.S.

B. MAISONS D'ÉDITION CLÉ – KEY PUBLISHING HOUSES

Academic Therapy	Novato, Ca.
Allyn and Bacon	Boston, Mass.
Bell & Howell	Weston, Ontario
C.V. Mosby	St. Louis, Mo.
Charles C. Thomas	Springfield, Ill.
Charles E. Merrill	Columbus, Ohio
The Council for Exceptional Children	Reston, Va.
Didacheaux et Niestlé	Montréal, Québec
Dimensions Publishers / Adapt Press	Sioux Falls, S.C.
Educators Publishing Service	Cambridge, MA.
ERIC Clearinghouse on Early Childhood Education	Urbana, Ill.
Eye Gate Media	Jamaica, N.Y.
Fitzhenry & Whiteside	Don Mills, Ontario
Free Press	New York, N.Y.
Ginn & Company	Scarborough, Ontario
Holt, Rinehart & Winston	New York, N.Y.
Houghton Mifflin	Boston, MA.
Human Policy Press	Syracuse, N.Y.
John Day	New York, N.Y.
Jossey-Bass	San Francisco, Calif.
Learning Concepts	Austin, Texas
Love Publishing Co.	Denver, Colorado
Mafex Associates	Johnstown, PA.
McGraw-Hill	Del Mar, Calif.
Olympus Publishing Co.	Salt Lake City, Utah
Research Press	Champaign, Ill.
Syracuse University Press	Syracuse, N.Y.
Teaching Resources Corporation	Boston, MA.

C. MÉDIA ET MATÉRIEL DIDACTIQUE CLÉ – KEY MATERIALS AND MEDIA

Fairchild
Friedman
Hainsworth
Gerard
Mann, P.H.
McKay
Mooney
Murray
Peterson
Spearman
Taylor, F.M.
Ward

D. PROJETS ET PROGRAMMES CLÉ – KEY PROJECTS & PROGRAMS

Anderson
Arnekley
Barthe
Beery
Berry
Blum
Bradfield
Cantrell
Christenson
Christie
Clevelanu
Davis
Fine
Forget
Hale
Hewett
Hutton
Isaacson
Ives
Jones, R.L.
Karagianis
Kaufman
Kirby
Kirsch
Klinger
Kueffler
Ley
Maurice, P.
Mayhall
McDonnell
McNally
Mehrota
Miller, M.B.
Morin
Nagrodsky
Ochoa
Olson
Plantz
Prehm
Reiss
Schwartz
Sehler
Semmel
Serwer
Stefonek
Tull
Vogel
Wenke
Ysseldyke
Zedler

E. RECHERCHES CLÉ – KEY RESEARCH

Alberto
Alper
Anderson, R.D.
Baldwin
Barngrover
Beery
Berry
Birch
Blackman
Boersma
Borg
Bornstein
Bradfield
Brooks
Burdett
Calhoun
Cantrell
Christie
Collins
Cox
Crim
Cullinan
Di Sipio
Doll
Dunlop
Egner
Elliot
Feinberg
Fitzpatrick
Frick
Frohreich
Gardner
Gay
Gilberts
Goldberg
Grassi
Grieger
Grosenick
Harasymiw
Haring
Hayball
Hewett
Hotchkiss
House
Howard
Hutson
Ito
Jenkins
Jensen
Kender
Kingsley
Kreinberg
Landers
Lapp
Larsen
Lepire
Lessa
Lewis, T.
MacMillan
Mandall
Marver
Mathey
McBurney
McCombs
McDaniel
McLuce
Miller, M.D.
Moore
Morrow
Myers
Nuschy
Nystrom
Podell
Randolph
Reynolds
Rooney
Sabatino, D.A.
Sattler
Schiff
Schorn
Schwartz
Serwer
Singleton
Skrtic
Stephens, T.W.
Strang
Taylor, P.S.
Tseng
Vlasak
Wade
Yuker

SECTION II

RÉFÉRENCES PAR AUTEURS

Cette section a été mise au point afin d'aider le lecteur à trouver des références par ordre alphabétique des auteurs.

REFERENCES BY AUTHORS

This section has been organized to assist the reader in finding references by alphabetical order for each author.

A

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B

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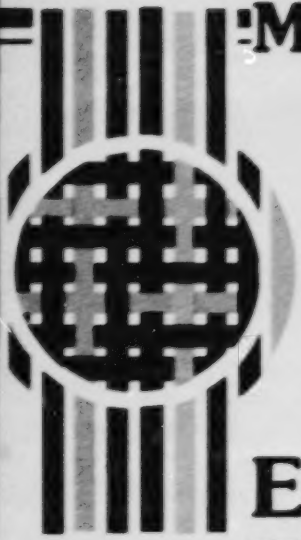

MAINSTREAMING

EDUCATION FOR ALL CHILDREN

William M. Cruickshank, Ph.D.

MAINSTREAMING: EDUCATION FOR ALL CHILDREN

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INTRODUCTION

William M. Cruickshank, Ph.D. (1945), is a special educator of international repute. Throughout his distinguished career he has written numerous articles and papers on issues that are critical to children with special needs. His works, which have been translated into many languages, include **The Brain Injured Child in Home, School and Community** (1967), and **The Psychoeducational Foundations of Learning Disabilities** (1973). Dr. Cruickshank has received numerous awards including (in 1977) the Newell C. Kephart Award from Purdue University. As President of the International Academy for Research on Learning Disabilities he communicates worldwide with other experts in the field, and is consultant to state, government and university planners across North America. He is presently Director of the Child and Family Health Program at the School of Public Health, and Director Emeritus of the Institute for the Study of Mental Retardation and Related Disabilities, at the University of Michigan.

This paper, commissioned from him for the AQETA-QACLD **Dossier on Mainstreaming,** is the fruit of Dr. Cruickshank's many years of experience in working with exceptional children, with their teachers and families, and with the legislators and administrators who establish structures for integrating these children into the mainstream. Throughout his long career he has written extensively on this theme, analysing both the broad issues and the details of implementation, criticizing facile assumptions and too-easy answers, while offering much positive and practical advice.

A review of his work (see **List of References**, p. 11), spanning the years from 1939 until today, reveals many key statements on mainstreaming:

In 1939 he wrote "The problem confronting society regarding the school placement of the handicapped child is not a new situation which has developed in recent years. . . History leads to the conclusion that every age has had to deal with the situation in some way or another."

In 1947: "Healthy normal adjustment cannot be obtained by a (crippled) child when fear predominates the frame of reference (as in an integrated classroom) in which the self concept is developing."

In 1952: "A critical evaluation of relationships is seen on the part of non-crippled children as a part of a continuing drive for self-improvement and a change in the *status quo*. Such critical evaluation of social relations is observed to be absent with handicapped children."

In 1952: "A . . . major obligation of professional education to the exceptional child is the responsibility of providing at least minimal experience with exceptional children for all teachers and for all administrators and supervisors."

In 1955: "The concept of integration is not the total solution to the problem."

In 1956: "The degree of acceptance of the handicapped by their normal peers seems to be partially related to intelligence and extent of disability caused by the handicap. Handicapped children believe they have more fears and guilt feelings than do normal children and these fears are directly related to their handicap."

In 1955: "There appears to be no difference in the rate of acceptance or rejection between crippled and non-crippled children. . . . as demonstrated by the children's own choices."

In 1958: "The next decade without question will see a refinement of program and an extension of program to cerebral palsy children who, by reason of their peculiar characteristics, are unable to learn with profit through the same method and procedure as has generally been found appropriate with the great mass of children."

In 1960: "We come to the conclusion that American education is not geared to meet the needs of all children in a democracy. . . . We should be challenged by the inadequacies of our present efforts to revitalize American education and to meet more adequately the needs of a large segment of our child population."

In 1967: "Selective placement (of the child in schools) involves the careful and complete assessment of the abilities and limitations of the child, his home, and community by professionally qualified persons representing numerous disciplines and the ultimate joint recommendation of an evaluation team regarding the optimum educational placement in terms of the realistic opportunities which present themselves."

In 1974: "We have no faith that the program of integration as it is now being pursued in colleges, universities, and school systems will succeed if the presently observed erratic approaches are continued."

In 1975: "Some children with understanding teachers may be assisted in the ordinary classroom, although this situation will have its drawbacks for the (exceptional) child."

These commentaries from Cruickshank himself, over four decades, highlight his continuing concern with the crucial question of mainstreaming, and may serve as the most fitting introduction and background to this new paper on "Education for All Children".

Karin David,
Editor, Mainstreaming Series
GEMS

William M. Cruickshank

MAINSTREAMING: EDUCATION FOR ALL CHILDREN

Mainstreaming, normalization or integration has today, in 1981, placed a new dimension on the program of the elementary and secondary schools. To say the least, this is putting it mildly. The (USA) Public Law 94-142 at the national level, and the various state implementation regulations, have indeed developed a new dimension in education which can either be permitted to develop into the worst educational fiasco we have ever seen, or it will be accepted as an unparalled opportunity to realize the most for the most children. In no way do we see the latter situation in anything but its most immature infancy at the present date. As a matter of fact, resistence to the concept of normalization is observed in many, many places on the part of professional personnel, and parents are complaining frequently that the program is working a disservice to their children in those instances where exceptional children are integrated into the regular school programs. We need to analyze this situation to ascertain what the issues are, and to determine the procedures which must be implemented in the immediate future if the concept is to work at all.

It is my belief that both professional people and parents of exceptional children have a basic misconception of what "mainstreaming" means. Recently I attended an educational conference in the southwestern part of the United States. Preceding me on the program, the State Superintendent of Public Instruction of that state spoke to the issue of *least restrictive placement* for children. With Madison Avenue (N.Y.C.) influence, we in the United States are a nation of phrase-makers, phrases often with little rationale behind them. *Least restrictive* is one of these which by its catchiness lulls us into an acceptance of a concept without thought and without realizing the inaccurate restrictions which it operationally implies. This is particularly true when considering this term in relation to the child with learning disabilities, with cardiac malfunctions,

with epilepsy or others who "look" so normal, i.e., those whose physical or learning problems are at first glance invisible to teachers, parents, or to other adult viewers.

The school official to whom I referred previously carefully listed for his listeners what in his mind were the most and least restrictive educational placements, a list which had already found its way into his state educational regulations and guidelines. The list read from *most* to *least* as follows:

state or provincial residential facilities,
special education self-contained classrooms,
hospital teaching,
resource rooms,
itinerant teaching,
regular or ordinary grades.

It is my considered opinion that this man and his associates, and others who might conceptualize the problem in the same manner, have succumbed to popular notions and have completely failed to view the matter realistically. What are my concerns?

First, any state or province needs all forms of education for exceptional children. If there is quality education, no matter where or in what form, it is *not* restrictive. We need good residential facilities for some exceptional children and adults. The field of learning disabilities had its origin in a residential school, probably at the time the best such facility in the world. This school, one serving educable mentally retarded youth, had an outstanding admissions policy, and an outstanding school program, cottage life program, vocational program, religious program, counseling program, research program, community placement program, athletic program, an excellent staff, and all other elements which make for a quality program. No parents ever complained that their retarded child was in a most restricted placement in being in this facility.

We need excellent self-contained classrooms and resource rooms for other exceptional children. Some years ago, while visiting a class for middle-school mentally retarded youth in New York City, a mother of one of the children arrived also to visit and she sat next to me. Ultimately as we talked quietly I asked her if she as a parent liked what she saw. Her reply told the whole story. "My child is happy and she is succeeding. So I am very happy and so is her father." Special classes can be excellent. Over the years such classes have rarely been given the opportunity by general educators to demonstrate their worth. Quality education programs in these situations can be of great value to the children who attend them, and they are often necessary.

The superintendent of public instruction, to whom I previously referred, failed to see that his concept of least restrictive placement can also be the most restrictive under certain circumstances. Teacher readiness is one of these. Some years ago I was teaching a late afternoon graduate class

composed primarily of teachers in service. The focus of the course was on the psychology of exceptional children. The placement of the room being as it was at the end of a long hall and the room's door open, I as the lecturer could see down the hallway. The students' backs were toward the door. At one point I saw Joey feeling his way along the hall toward my voice which he recognized. Joey was a three-year old, highly intelligent blind boy who had "escaped" from his nursery school class located on the second floor of the same building. As he approached the doorway I walked back, picked him up and placed him over my shoulder, again walking backwards toward the front of the room continuing my lecture throughout. The students had not yet seen Joey's face. I held Joey in this position until I needed to write a closing comment on the blackboard, and at that time sat him on the lap of one of the students in the front row — still with his face away from that student and the class members. By this time Joey's teacher was coming looking for the child and I motioned her into the room, but before that I stopped to introduce Joey to the class. In doing so I mentioned that he was a blind boy. . . At that, the student on whose lap he was still sitting loudly called "oh, oh my," and allowed him to slip to the floor. I grabbed him up, and handed him to the teacher, later saying in not too polite terms to the student: "What in the world caused you to do that?" The reply was "But I never touched a blind person before." Is this teacher prepared to handle a regular class in which exceptional children also may be placed?

An educable mentally retarded boy was in an ordinary Grade Four class. His I.Q. was 71, mental age 8-6 years. There were no adapted teaching materials. The boy used only what was available for all the 4th grade children. He sat at the back right corner of the room. Is this integration and least restrictive?

Patty is deaf. She wears two hearing aids, but reads the speech of others extremely well. She was getting along well in the 4th grade when her parents moved to a new neighborhood and Patty to a new school. On one occasion the new teacher told Patty she wanted to play a game with her. Patty was to visit every classroom on the floor and see if she could find another child with a hearing aid. On her return with the statement that none was to be found, the teacher said to her: "See you are different. You don't belong in this school." Is this least restrictive or most restrictive?

From the point of view of least or most restrictive, what about the learning disabled boy in a third grade placement? His intelligence is above normal. He is a non-reader with all of the other academic deficiencies which are concomitant. Where are his success experiences to come from in a regular third grade? What about another learning disabled boy in the 5th grade who has tremendous sequencing problems? The teacher said to the parents, "He just doesn't try!" Or what about Tracy who was in the 10th grade? He had severe memory and sequencing problems, but he

knew concepts. His 10th grade mathematics teacher would not permit him to use a hand calculator. Is this a least restrictive placement? Are these teachers of these children able to provide quality education to these children? No; the teachers of these children are unfortunately creating a most restrictive placement in a normalization classroom.

It seems unnecessary to me to discuss least or most with reference to hospital teaching, itinerant teaching, or other forms of educational arrangements. Any one, it would appear to me, who has the slightest orientation to good, modern education would understand the reasons for and the needs of children for such educational facilities and personnel, i.e., qualified personnel with an understanding of the nature and needs of exceptional children irrespective of the disability involved.

If most restrictive placement is to be changed to least restrictive what must happen?

1. It must be recognized that a program of normalization will not and cannot take place overnight. It is more than a mere administrative decision. Dr. James L. Paul and his associates (1977) have indicated that at minimum, an eighteen-month period of intensive and planned orientation is required before the first child is placed into the mainstream of education. The orientation includes a broad spectrum of personnel as we will discuss.

2. We must recognize that the concept of normalization leading to an appropriate understanding of least restrictive placement is a total community decision and as such requires total community orientation. Many of the points we will now discuss can proceed simultaneously. There is not necessarily the requirement of consecutive development. However, to effect a total program of normalization in education for handicapped children, all groups to which we address ourselves in this paper must be carefully included. It is again a matter of the old cliché, a chain is only as strong as its weakest link.

   a. There must be a total understanding and a positive decision regarding normalization (its advantages and its limitations) by every member of a School Board. If these community leaders cannot defend the program to citizens with a through belief in what they say, the program will be defeated before it is undertaken with the first child.

   b. All administrators and supervisors of the school system must have a complete understanding of the program, and this means that all administrators must have a sound orientation to the psychology and education of exceptional children. These men and women are going to be the ones to interpret and outline the program to teachers and others within the system and within individual school buildings. Cruickshank, Paul and Junkala (1966) have written a widely accepted book called **Misfits in the Public Schools.** We did not speak of the children as misfits, but of the administrative

staff who, by their ineptness and lack of understanding of the role of teachers of children with severe learning disabilities and the program to be provided for them, completely fouled a total concept in many school systems. These uninsightful school administrators caused hundreds of thousands of dollars spent in the preparation of their teachers to be almost totally wasted. They indeed were and often are still educational misfits. It need not be so, however. If administrators admit their deficiencies and if they undergo a sound program of in-service education regarding these problems, i.e., handicapped children and the concepts of education leading to normalization, then the total spectrum of administrative arrangements required for exceptional children will function at a high level, including the program of normalization and integration.

c. All teachers, school nurses, social workers, psychologists, and what ever other professional staff is utilized within the school(s) must have a thorough orientation both to the psychoeducational characteristics of all types of exceptional children, and also to the concept of normalization and integration of various exceptional children within the ordinary classroom. Professional personnel who have no understanding, formal or informal, of the nature and needs of exceptional children cannot be expected (for reasons to be discussed) to accept handicapped children and youth on a basis equal to that which they demonstrate toward the non-handicapped group of pupils. College and university faculties must accept their share of the blame for the lack of orientation of pre-service teachers and administrators to the nature of the exceptional child. Teacher-education programs almost universally have consciously ignored the needs of teachers and other professional school personnel for insight into the learning problems of nearly twenty percent of the total elementary school population of a given community, i.e., nearly one-fifth of the school population in the lower grades. Included in this figure are those pupils with intellectual differences, physical handicaps, emotional disturbances, perceptual processing deficits resulting in serious learning disabilities. Since we have very inaccurate reporting on these problems everywhere, the figure, which is indeed an estimate, may be higher than twenty percent. It certainly is not much lower at any rate.

d. All support personnel in the school system, i.e., secretaries, bus drivers, custodians, and clerks, also need a good orientation to what may be a different type of pupil to appear in the school and on school buses. These persons are as important in the development of the exceptional child as are the teachers and administrators, for their expressed and unexpressed feelings toward the child or youth will go far in the formation of unhealthy self concepts or, if positive, good self concepts. I am reminded in this instance of a time when I was undertaking group play therapy with a small group of emotionally disturbed, physically handicapped

children of elementary school age. We were utilizing an unused kindergarten classroom. On one occasion a custodian peered through the door window and then entered the room pointing at a child and yelling "I know what I'd do with that brat if he was mine. I'd turn him over my knee and he'd shape up." Not only was this man grammatically incorrect, but his violent outburst could hardly be considered therapeutic or supportive to the development of a positive self-concept in what was a seriously emotionally disturbed child of eight years. We often fail to recognize the close relationship which many of these support persons have with children in a school building and with handicapped children in particular. They, like teachers, frequently represent outmoded historical concepts and stereotypical attitudes toward differences. They will not change spontaneously without correct information simultaneously being provided. With the exceptional child and youth, we are dealing with a minority group, and as such the dynamics involved are not dissimilar to those involving other minority groups of racial or cultural natures, i.e., Black students, Native American and Native Canadian pupils, Inuit pupils, and others such as the Hispanic children and youth of the southern and western states in the United States, the French speaking children in the States of Maine and Louisiana in the U.S., and the English speaking pupils of the Province of Quebec and elsewhere. Minority groups of whatsoever nature, racial, religious, emotional, physical, all have much in common insofar as expressed and unexpressed attitudes toward them are concerned. "Getting to know you," as so aptly expressed by Anna to the children of the King of Siam, has much truth; getting to know the handicapped child not only requires direct contact with them, but also formal education about them.

e. All of the so-called normal pupils in the elementary and secondary schools must have a full orientation to the exceptional child who may be joining their classrooms or their school. There are some excellent visual aids which can be employed to accelerate attitude change and acceptance through discussions. The Encyclopedia Britannica Educational Corporation has two such series of trigger films which are invaluable in initiating discussions, namely, **Like You; Like Me** and **People You'd Like to Know.** While the normal children and youth cannot be left out of this planning, it is interesting to consider the findings of some research completed many years ago. Therein we found physically handicapped adolescents (264) almost universally stating that it was adults, not their age-level peers, who most seriously impressed upon them the fact that they were handicapped and emphasized the limitations of their various handicaps (Cruickshank, 1955). In another study we observed that when utilizing sociometric techniques, handicapped and normal children were seen as popular or rejected from the social group, not by reason of the presence of a visible physical differ-

ence, but on the basis of personality traits inherent in personality and behavior (Cruickshank, 1955b). Although normal children are tolerant of differences, they need orientation when the differences are to become daily participants in their activities.

f. The parents of all children in the community, those of normal children as well as those of exceptional children, must understand the new program being launched in their schools. As support personnel to their own children regarding children with differences, and as spokespersons with their friends in the community, they must have facts on which to base their opinions which hopefully will be positive in nature. Parents, like teachers and members of the school staff, cannot be expected to speak intelligently or to behave appropriately regarding a problem unless they have solid information and facts on which to base their opinions.

g. Finally, an important subgroup of the general community needs to be considered, i.e., the Senior Citizens and their organizations. These individual with fixed incomes need to understand both the philosophy involved and the fact that normalization, if it takes place, is not more costly than the self-contained classroom. In their own organizations, in churches and service clubs, these people speak freely and effectively. If they do not have the facts, they unwittingly may perform a disservice to the community and to the schools in particular.

It is relatively easy to see that to accomplish what we have just briefly outlined, time is a factor. It cannot be accomplished over night and we stated earlier the essence of what we say cannot take form as a mere administrative decision by the members of a board of education or by the chief professional school officer. If the latter is the path which is followed, a backlash is certain to develop, and children will be the hardest hit. Communities cannot afford to allow this to happen.

3. We must recognize that all types of educational programs are necessary within a province, state, or within an individual school system. There are several premises as the basis of this statement.

   a. Although there are constitutional rights and guarantees, or at the state or provincial level, laws and local school regulations, endowing many things to the handicapped, our societies have never recognized these with full acceptance. "All men are created equal. . ." the U.S. Constitution states. The handicapped are a minority as we have just stated, and we have treated them in a racist manner. Because of this, special legislation such as the (U.S.) P.L. 94-142 is required, but it was too hastily conceived and enacted to be of real value. Special fund drives are needed to support clinics and schools which public funds should support but do not.

   b. We must recognize that archaic attitudes toward the handicapped are viable and today are still tone-setting. On all sides we still hear children referred to as *deaf and dumb*. The bus driver passes by an

athotoid cerebral palsy man with the announcement "No drunks on my bus". The mentally retarded youth is referred to as a *retardate*. A community living center for a group of mentally retarded young adults has all the windows shot out the day before the group is to move in. Retarded youths living in a community living center are not permitted to have tickets to use the community swimming pool. Epilepsy is caused by having the child sleep in the same room with its parents while the latter are engaged in sexual intercourse! Emotional disturbances are hereditary or on another level, "If the parents had sent him to church regularly, he wouldn't be emotionally upset". It is a wonder that there is any positive mental health permitted these children in the face of such archaic statements or feelings.

c. Fears and guilt feelings as well as gross misunderstandings regarding disabilities are still factors which motivate people. A father said to me when discussing his son, who was a quadraplegic cerebral youth of 14 years, "The school people want to put him in a sex education class. I said no. Thank God, as least I don't have to worry about Tom and girls." Interestingly enough Tom at the age of 19 years was married! This father, however, is typical of many parents and more community people when it comes to an understanding of the true needs of the exceptional individual. Parental behavior toward their own children is dictated often by their own guilt feelings related to having an handicapped child.

d. Religious concepts regarding the handicapped are still controlling. "Man is created in God's own image", we are told, and those who are not like God's perfection stand outside the pale of religion. Hence, the schools should not cater to them either. This sounds like Anita Bryant speaking in another arena!

These issues must be dealt with, for unless they are they will further become contagious and limit the concept of normalization and integration. The child himself is too weak to stand up against restrictive attitudes, no matter what sort of an educational environment he is in. At present because of things absent which we mention, the total burden of adjustment in an integrated situation is placed heavily on the child, a child who may not be able to explain his needs, characteristics, or appearance to a teacher — listening or not listening. These children often find themselves in a terrible vice, pressed constantly by forces which they do not understand, but which they know are characterized often by fear, guilt, and even hate in the adult. There are good integrated situations, but they are so few as not readily to be counted. In most normalization situations, psychological child abuse, subtle and often denied, is probably as terrible as physical abuse per se. These attitudes can change, but change must be planned, as some of my colleagues and I saw happening some years ago before mainstreaming was a popular word, and long before Martin Luther King gave credence to the concept of integration and normalization (Haring, Stern, and Cruickshank, 1958).

A program of mainstreaming then requires a number of things in addition to those which we have mentioned previously or alluded to in earlier paragraphs.

1. There must be selective placement of children in ordinary classes, based on parental participation and child participation in the decision.
2. It must be recognized that not all exceptional children can or should be placed in regular classrooms.
3. We should recognize that mainstreaming, when adequately programmed, is *not* less costly than are special education self-contained classrooms.
4. When there is a normalization program put in place, school administrators must provide for an appropriate reduction in the teacher-pupil ratio to make possible the individualized instruction which will be required. This will be dependent on many variables such as the degree of disability, the level of intelligence and the nature of the needs of the normal children in the classroom.
5. The school administration must provide appropriate numbers of aide personnel in the normalized classroom, and a program of utilization of volunteers in the classroom must be implemented.
6. Itinerant teachers to support the regular classroom teacher must be employed. No teacher alone can solve all of the problems of all children, particularly when some of these problems are neurologically based or when the teacher has had little or no experience with a given disability type.
7. Continuous assessment and evaluation of the exceptional children must he planned and provided at frequent intervals by teachers or by school psychologists or others. This means additional in-service education in most school systems.
8. Educational supervision must be provided which is aimed at instructional improvement and at the achievement of individual improvement of the child's own success level, rather than supervision for personnel reasons or as a glorified coffee klatsch.
9. As professional people concerned with a normalized teaching situation, we must see to it that school buildings are totally accessible to the handicapped. This includes stairways, toilets, gymnasium facilities and equipment, lockers, shower rooms, door-knobs, auditorium facilities, water fountains, lunch room counters, telephone booths, ad inf. The exceptional child with whatever disability cannot ever be left behind because of environmental limitations over which he or she has absolutely no control. If these adjustments cannot be made, educators who force normalization are *breaking the law. The response then must be no mainstreaming.* Costs must be anticipated by board of education members and administrators before they climb on the band

wagon of mainstreaming; and it is a band wagon, as some are exploiting the concept. In one university, $40,000 per toilet room had to be set aside to make old facilities accessible to handicapped students.

One may say that this is a long list of things to be done, and that it is impossible. It is not impossible. If we are going to normalize education for many exceptional children, without the things we have mentioned we are inviting law suits by parents and by the children themselves. The history of litigation in the past decade in this arena is fascinating, and it is often disappointing that a modern society would require such motivation to accomplish that which it should have already been doing long since. In the absence of well-conceived programs of normalization and its concomitant requirement of in-service education at all professional levels, we are setting up issues of contract bargaining, which ultimately lowers the quality of the profession and at the least is no compliment to it. On the other hand, if what we suggested is accomplished:

1. the spirit of the remarkable legislative concepts of P.L. 94-142 and local education guidelines will be accomplished;
2. the maximal educational opportunities will be provided all children;
3. handicapped children will be assured of educational opportunities of whatsoever nature specific to their unusual and often unique needs;
4. a concept of human and legal rights of the handicapped will in part be positively achieved;
5. parents will sleep better, and
6. professional educators can hold up their heads knowing that they have done a good job. Nothing less is professionally legal or humanly acceptable.

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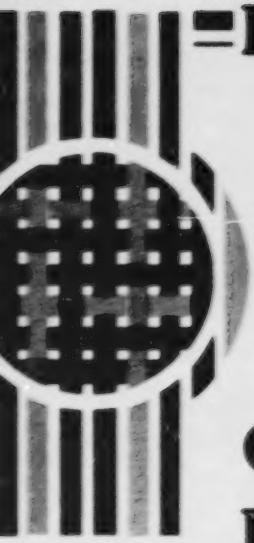

C'EST RENDRE L'ÉDUCATION ACCESSIBLE À TOUS LES ENFANTS

William M. Cruickshank, Ph.D.

L'INTÉGRATION, C'EST RENDRE L'ÉDUCATION ACCESSIBLE À TOUS LES ENFANTS

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L'ASSOCIATION QUÉBÉCOISE
POUR LES ENFANTS AYANT DES TROUBLES D'APPRENTISSAGE

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INTRODUCTION

Éducateur spécialiste de l'enfance en difficulté, William M. Cruickshank jouit d'une réputation internationale. Tout au long de sa prestigieuse carrière, il a écrit de nombreux articles et ouvrages sur des sujets d'une importance cruciale pour les enfants qui manifestent des besoins particuliers, et la plupart ont été traduits en plusieurs langues. Citons, entre autres, **The Brain Injured Child in Home, School and Community** (1967) et **Psychoeducational Foundations of Learning Disabilities** (1973). Déjà titulaire de plusieurs distinctions, le docteur Cruickshank s'est vu décerné, en 1977, la Newell C. Kephart Award par l'Université de Purdue. À titre de président de la International Academy for Research on Learning Disabilities, il est en constante communication avec des spécialistes du monde entier et agit comme conseiller auprès des planificateurs relevant des États, des gouvernements et des universités, partout en Amérique du Nord.

Le docteur Cruickshank est actuellement directeur du Child and Family Health Program instauré par la School of Public Health, ainsi que directeur émérite du Institute for the Study of Mental Retardation and Related Disabilities, à l'Université du Michigan.

Préparé tout spécialement pour le Dossier Intégration de l'AQETA-QACLD, l'exposé qui suit témoigne de la longue expérience du docteur Cruickshank auprès des enfants en difficulté, de leurs familles et de leurs professeurs, de même qu'auprès des administrateurs et des législateurs à qui incombe la responsabilité d'établir des structures susceptibles de faciliter l'intégration de ces enfants au sein du système d'éducation conventionnel. Il s'agit là d'un thème auquel le docteur Cruickshank a consacré de nombreux ouvrages où, tout en analysant aussi bien les politiques d'ensemble que les détails même de l'intégration et en suggérant des solutions pratiques et positives, il n'hésitait pas à critiquer les théories simplistes et les réponses toutes faites.

Son oeuvre (on trouvera la liste des ouvrages cités en page 12) qui s'étend de 1939 à nos jours comporte plusieurs énoncés capitaux à propos de l'intégration:

1939: "Le problème auquel se heurte la société en ce qui a trait à l'intégration scolaire de l'enfant handicapé ne date pas de ces dernières années, tant s'en faut. En étudiant l'Histoire, on en arrive à la conclusion que toutes les époques ont dû faire face, d'une façon ou d'une autre, à pareille situation."

1947: "Lorsque la peur constitue l'élément prédominant du cadre de référence (une classe intégrée, par exemple) au sein duquel se développe le concept de soi, on ne peut s'attendre à voir un enfant (infirme) s'adapter sainement et normalement."

1952: "Dans le cas des enfants non handicapés, l'évaluation critique des relations est perçue comme faisant partie intégrante d'une constante volonté d'amélioration personnelle et d'une modification du statu quo. On a relevé, chez les enfants handicapés, l'absence de cette évaluation critique des rapports sociaux."

1952: "Permettre à tous les enseignants et à tous les directeurs et administrateurs d'acquérir une expérience minimale auprès des enfants en difficulté constitue, pour l'éducation professionnelle, une obligation à laquelle elle ne saurait se soustraire, en égard à ces enfants."

1955: "Le concept d'intégration ne représente pas la solution intégrale au problème."

1955: "Le degré d'acceptation des enfants en difficulté par leurs pairs normaux semble partiellement lié à la connaissance et à l'ampleur du trouble engendré par le handicap. Les enfants handicapés disent éprouver davantage de craintes et un plus grand sentiment de culpabilité que les enfants normaux, et leurs craintes découlent directement de leur handicap."

1955: "Ainsi qu'on peut le constater d'après les propres choix des enfants, le fait d'être ou non handicapé n'influe pas sur le taux d'acceptation ou de rejet entre eux."

1958: "Il ne fait aucun doute qu'on assistera, au cours de la prochaine décennie, au perfectionnement et à l'extension des programmes destinés aux enfants souffrant d'infirmité motrice cérébrale et qui, du fait même de leur handicap, ne peuvent apprendre avec profit selon les méthodes qui ont déjà fait leurs preuves auprès de la grande majorité des enfants."

1960: "Nous en sommes arrivés à la conclusion que le système d'éducation américain n'est pas conçu pour répondre aux besoins de tous les enfants, comme cela devrait être dans une démocratie. L'insuffisance de nos efforts devrait nous inciter à tout mettre en oeuvre pour revivifier ce système afin qu'il tienne pleinement compte des besoins d'une proportion importante de la population scolaire."

1967: "Le classement sélectif (de l'enfant à l'école) doit faire l'objet d'une évaluation attentive et complète des capacités et des limites de l'enfant, tout comme de sa famille et de son milieu. Effectuée par des personnes qualifiées appartenant à plusieurs disciplines, elle doit s'accompagner d'une recommandation du comité d'évaluation déterminant un classement qui permettra des conditions optimales d'apprentissage et tiendra compte des occasions réalistes qui pourront se présenter."

1974: "Nous sommes convaincus que le programme d'intégration appliqué dans les écoles, les collèges et les universités est voué à l'échec si on continue d'employer des méthodes qui n'ont ni queue ni tête."

1975: "Les élèves ayant des professeurs compréhensifs pourront bénéficier d'une certaine aide dans les classes traditionnelles, quoique cette situation puisse présenter des inconvénients pour l'enfant (en difficulté).

Ces quelques extraits tirés de l'oeuvre même de Cruickshank, qui s'étale sur près de quatre décennies, mettent en relief sa constante préoccupation pour le problème crucial de l'intégration; on ne saurait trouver d'arrière-plan et d'introduction mieux adaptés à ce nouvel exposé sur "L'Éducation accessible à tous les enfants".

Karin David
Rédactrice
Recueil: Intégration
(GEMS)

William M. Cruickshank

L'INTÉGRATION, C'EST RENDRE L'ÉDUCATION ACCESSIBLE À TOUS LES ENFANTS

Grâce à l'intégration ou normalisation, les programmes des écoles élémentaires et secondaires se trouvent dotés, aujourd'hui, en 1981, d'une nouvelle dimension. Et c'est vraiment là le moins qu'on puisse dire. En effet, la loi 94-142 (USA) qui s'applique à l'échelle nationale et les règlements d'implantation adoptés par les différents états ont ajouté une nouvelle dimension au système d'enseignement, ce qui pourra soit se solder par le pire fiasco qu'on aura jamais vu dans le monde de l'éducation, soit se révéler une occasion sans précédent d'accomplir le maximum pour un maximum d'enfants. Néanmoins, cette seconde possibilité ne semble se dessiner nulle part pour le moment, si ce n'est sous sa forme la plus immature. On ne peut nier le fait que, en de nombreux endroits, des professionnels opposent une sérieuse résistance au concept de normalisation, et les parents ayant des enfants en difficulté se plaignent fréquemment que le programme pénalise ces derniers dans les cas où ils sont admis dans des classes régulières. Il nous faut donc analyser cette situation afin de voir ce qui en est et de pouvoir déterminer les méthodes qu'il faudra instaurer sans retard si l'on veut que le concept donne, un tant soit peu, des résultats.

À mon avis, tant le personnel spécialisé que les parents d'enfants en difficulté ont une perception foncièrement erronée de ce qu'est l'"intégration". Il y a quelque temps, j'assistais à une conférence sur l'éducation dans une ville du sud-ouest des États-Unis. Pendant une discussion à propos du programme, le Surintendant de l'Instruction publique de l'état où nous nous trouvions aborda la question d'un *placement moins*

restrictif des enfants. À cause de l'influence de Madison Avenue (N.Y.C.), nous, les Américains, nous sommes un peuple de forgeurs d'expressions — des expressions qui, bien souvent, ne veulent pas dire grand-chose. C'est le cas de *moins restrictif* qui, parce qu'elle sonne bien, nous incite à accepter, les yeux fermés, un concept vide de sens et dont nous ne saisissons pas toutes les restrictions inadéquates qu'il contient. Ceci s'avère particulièrement fondé lorsqu'on emploie ce terme pour un enfant qui a des difficultés d'apprentissage, qui est cardiaque ou épileptique, ou pour ceux qui ont "l'air" si normal, c'est-à-dire dont les troubles physiques ou d'apprentissage sont, de prime abord, invisibles pour les professeurs, les parents ou tout autre observateur adulte.

Le fonctionnaire dont je viens de parler énuméra minutieusement à l'intention de ses auditeurs les milieux qu'il considérait comme très ou moins restrictif — liste qu'il avait déjà intégrée dans les règlements et principes en vigueur dans son état. Cette liste, présentée en ordre décroissant, était la suivante:

internats spécialisés administrés par les états ou les provinces
classes spéciales
classes en milieu hospitalier
centres de ressources
classes itinérantes
classes régulières

Après mûre réflexion, il m'apparaît que cet homme et ses collègues, ainsi que tous ceux qui pourraient envisager le problème sous le même angle, sont tombés dans le piège des idées toutes faites et se sont révélés totalement incapables de considérer la question d'un point de vue réaliste. Ceci dit, voici ce que je propose.

Tout d'abord, on doit pouvoir trouver, dans chaque état ou province, toutes les méthodes éducationnelles possibles à l'intention de l'enfance en difficulté. Quand une méthode d'enseignement est de qualité, peu importe le lieu ou la forme, elle ne peut être restrictive. Il nous faut de bons internats pour certains enfants et adultes souffrant d'un handicap. C'est dans un internat qui, à l'époque, était probablement le meilleur au monde que la notion de troubles d'apprentissage a vu le jour. Cet établissement, qui recevait de jeunes déficients mentaux légers, était incomparable à tous les points de vue: politique d'admission, programme d'études, vie familiale par équipes dans des chalets, formation professionnelle, activités religieuses, orientation, recherche, programme de réinsertion dans la communauté, sports, personnel hors pair, rien ne manquait pour faire de cet endroit le meilleur de tous. Jamais les parents qui y avaient inscrits leurs enfants ne se sont plaints d'avoir placé ces derniers dans un milieu très restrictif.

Nous avons besoin d'excellentes classes spéciales et de non moins excellents centres de ressources pour d'autres groupes d'enfants. Il y a quelques années, j'ai visité une classe du niveau secondaire pour de jeunes déficients mentaux, à New York. À un moment donné, la mère

d'un des enfants vint lui rendre visite et, en attendant, elle s'assit à côté de moi. Tandis que nous échangions tranquillement quelques phrases, je lui demandai si elle, en tant que parent, aimait cet endroit. Elle me répondit sans détour: "Mon enfant est heureuse et elle fait des progrès. Alors, je suis vraiment ravie et son père aussi." Il peut y avoir d'excellentes classes spéciales. Mais, au fil des années, les éducateurs du système régulier leur ont rarement donné l'occasion de montrer toute leur valeur. De bons programmes d'enseignement peuvent beaucoup apporter aux enfants qui les suivent, et ils sont souvent nécessaires.

Le Surintendant de l'Instruction publique, auquel j'ai fait allusion plus tôt, n'a pas su voir que son concept d'un placement moins restrictif peut également se révéler le plus restrictif dans certaines circonstances. Et l'ouverture d'esprit du professeur est au nombre de celles-ci. Il y a plusieurs années, je donnais un cours, en fin d'après-midi, à un groupe composé essentiellement de professeurs déjà en fonction. Le thème en était la psychologie des enfants en difficulté. La salle se trouvait au bout d'un long vestibule. Comme la porte était ouverte, je pouvais, de ma place, voir celui-ci, tandis que les étudiants lui tournaient le dos. À un moment donné, j'aperçus Joey qui traversait le vestibule en se fiant au son de ma voix qu'il avait reconnue. Joey était un petit garçon de trois ans, aveugle, très intelligent, qui s'était "évadé" du jardin d'enfants de l'établissement, situé au deuxième étage. Le voyant s'approcher de la porte, je descendis de l'estrade pour aller à sa rencontre et le juchai sur mes épaules, puis je retraversai la classe pour continuer mon cours. Les étudiants n'avaient pas encore vu le visage de Joey. Je gardai l'enfant sur mes épaules jusqu'au moment où il me fallut écrire quelque chose au tableau et je l'assis donc sur les genoux d'un étudiant de la première rangée — personne n'avait encore vu sa figure. Au même instant, je vis la maîtresse de Joey qui le cherchait et je lui fis signe de nous rejoindre, mais, auparavant, je présentai l'enfant au groupe et parlai de sa cécité. À ces mots, l'étudiant qui l'avait sur ses genoux s'écria: "Oh! mon Dieu!" et mit Joey par terre. Je pris la main du petit et le conduisis vers sa maîtresse. En regagnant ma place, j'apostrophai cet étudiant en des termes passablement vigoureux: "Mais enfin, bon sang, qu'est-ce qui vous a pris d'agir ainsi?" Il me répondit: "Mais je n'avais encore jamais touché à un aveugle jusqu'à maintenant." Peut-on croire que cet enseignant est prêt à prendre en main une classe régulière où se trouveront peut-être également des enfants en difficulté?

Un déficient mental léger était inscrit en quatrième année. Il avait un quotient intellectuel de 71 et un âge mental de six à huit ans. L'école ne possédait aucun matériel d'enseignement adapté à son cas. L'enfant devait donc employer les mêmes livres et autres accessoires que tous les élèves de sa classe. Il était installé dans le fond de la classe, au bout de la rangée de droite. Peut-on parler ici d'intégration et de milieu moins restrictif?

Patty est sourde. Elle porte deux prothèses auditives, mais sait très bien

lire sur les lèvres. Inscrite en quatrième année, elle s'en tirait fort bien, mais ses parents changèrent de quartier et elle se retrouva dans une nouvelle école. Un jour, la maîtresse de Patty lui dit qu'elle voulait jouer à un jeu avec elle et la conduisit dans toutes les classes de l'étage pour voir si elles ne trouveraient pas un autre enfant portant une prothèse auditive. Elles en virent aucun. De retour dans leur classe, le professeur dit à Patty: "Tu vois que tu es différente. Tu n'as rien à faire ici, dans cette école." Est-ce là un comportement moins restrictif ou très restrictif?

Toujours à propos de cette notion du moins ou plus restrictif, voyons le cas de ce garçonnet de troisième année qui a des troubles d'apprentissage. Il a une intelligence supérieure à la moyenne, mais il a de très sérieuses difficultés dans l'apprentissage de la lecture, ce qui a évidemment des répercussions catastrophiques dans toutes les autres matières. Que peut-il bien connaître comme réussites dans une troisième année régulière? Et qu'en est-il de cet autre garçon de cinquième année qui est incapable de comprendre l'enchaînement des séquences. Tout ce que son professeur a su dire à ses parents, c'est: "Il ne fait aucun effort." Et il y a Tracy, qui est en dixième année. Chez lui, ce sont la mémoire et l'enchaînement séquentiel qui sont déficients. Mais son professeur de mathématiques ne lui permet pas de se servir d'une calculatrice manuelle. Peut-on parler d'un placement moins restrictif? Et peut-on dire que les professeurs de ces enfants sont capables de leur enseigner quoi que ce soit avec profit? Non. Ces éducateurs sont malheureusement en train de créer un milieu particulièrement restrictif dans des classes d'intégration.

Il me semble superflu d'élaborer sur les classes en milieu hospitalier ou itinérantes, ou sur les autres alternatives en matière d'éducation. J'estime que toute personne, pour qui un enseignement moderne et adéquat est une chose qui va de soi, comprendra sans peine pourquoi celles-ci s'imposent, au même titre qu'un personnel bien préparé; dans ce dernier cas, il s'agit d'éducateurs qualifiés, capables de comprendre la nature et les besoins des enfants en difficulté, peu importe le genre de problème.

Mais que faut-il faire pour qu'un milieu très restrictif cesse de l'être?

1. Tout d'abord, il nous faut comprendre qu'un programme d'intégration ne peut et ne doit pas être instauré du jour au lendemain. Il s'agit là de bien plus que d'une simple décision administrative. Le docteur James L. Paul et ses collègues (1977) estiment qu'il faut prévoir au minimum dix-huit mois d'un travail intensif au niveau de l'orientation et de la planification, avant de pouvoir recevoir le premier enfant pour le "remettre à flot" sur le plan éducationnel. Et, comme nous le verrons plus loin, l'orientation fait appel à une vaste équipe de personnes appartenant à des disciplines différentes.

2. Nous devons admettre que le concept de normalisation, lequel conduit à une juste interprétation de ce qu'est un milieu moins restrictif, entraîne des décisions qui appartiennent à la communauté tout entière et qui, à ce titre, exigent une orientation communautaire. Bon nombre des points que nous allons aborder maintenant peuvent pren-

dre forme simultanément. Il n'est pas nécessaire qu'ils se succèdent selon un ordre prédéterminé. Néanmoins, il importe de ne négliger aucun des groupes auxquels nous nous adressons dans cet exposé, si nous voulons pouvoir mettre au point un programme complet d'intégration à l'intention des enfants handicapés. Comme le veut ce vieux dicton, une chaîne ne peut être plus solide que son maillon le plus faible.

a. Chacun des membres d'une commission scolaire doit parvenir à une entière compréhension de ce qu'est la normalisation (ses avantages et ses limites) et prendre à cet égard des décisions positives. Si ces chefs de file de la communauté sont incapables de défendre leur programme devant leurs concitoyens en étant fermement convaincus de la justesse de ce qu'ils avancent, le programme sera rejeté avant même d'avoir pu être testé auprès d'un seul enfant.

b. Tous les administrateurs et superviseurs du système scolaire doivent comprendre le programme sans la moindre faille, ce qui implique, de leur part, une solide connaissance de la psychologie et des besoins éducationnels des enfants en difficulté. Ce sont ces hommes et ces femmes qui devront expliquer le programme aux professeurs et à tous ceux qui oeuvrent dans le domaine de l'enseignement, et qui devront visiter les établissements scolaires un par un. En 1966, Cruickshank, Paul et Junkala ont publié un ouvrage qui a été très bien accueilli, **Misfits in the Public Schools.** Ce n'était pas les enfants que nous qualifiions d'inadaptés, mais plutôt les administrateurs qui ont complètement saboté l'application d'un concept global dans plusieurs commissions scolaires, à cause de leur inepti.. et parce qu'ils n'ont ni compris le rôle que doivent assumer les professeurs ayant des élèves aux prises avec de sérieux troubles d'apprentissage, ni vu la nécessité de modifier les programmes en conséquence. Et c'est ainsi que des centaines de milliers de dollars consacrés à la formation des enseignants ont été presque entièrement dépensés en pure perte, par la faute de ces administrateurs scolaires peu perspicaces. Incontestablement, ils ont été et sont encore bien souvent des inadaptés éducationnels. Pourtant, il pourrait en être tout autrement. Si pareils administrateurs reconnaissaient leurs lacunes et s'ils mettaient au point un solide programme de formation sur le tas à propos de ces problèmes — c'est-à-dire les enfants handicapés et un enseignement menant à l'intégration — cela permettrait à l'éventail complet des services administratifs nécessités par l'état des enfants en difficulté de fonctionner à plein rendement, y compris au niveau d'un programme de normalisation et d'intégration.

Tous les professeurs, infirmières scolaires, travailleurs sociaux, psychologues et autres spécialistes attachés à une école doivent posséder une solide connaissance à la fois des caractéristiques psycho-éducationnelles de toutes les catégories d'enfants en difficulté et du concept d'intégration et de normalisation de ces mêmes

catégories à l'intérieur des classes traditionnelles. On ne peut s'attendre (pour des raisons qu'il faudra examiner) à voir un spécialiste qui ignorerait tout de la nature et des besoins de l'enfance en difficulté traiter les jeunes handicapés sur un même pied que les autres élèves. Les universités et collèges doivent accepter la part de blâme qui leur revient parce qu'ils négligent de préparer les futurs professeurs et administrateurs à la réalité de l'enfance en difficulté. Les programmes de formation des maîtres ont consciemment — et ce, dans presque tous les pays — ignoré la nécessité d'habituer les enseignants et les autres membres de la communauté scolaire à faire face aux problèmes d'apprentissage que connaissent près de vingt pour cent de la population scolaire au niveau élémentaire, dans une région donnée, ce qui équivaut à presque un cinquième de l'ensemble des classes préparatoires. Ces statistiques comprennent les enfants présentant des différences sur le plan intellectuel, les handicapés physiques, ceux qui sont affectivement perturbés et ceux dont les difficultés de perception engendrent de graves troubles d'apprentissage. Mais, étant donné qu'il n'existe à peu près nulle part de données précises à cet égard, ces chiffres ne sont qu'approximatifs et peuvent fort bien être supérieurs à vingt pour cent. Ils n'y sont en tout cas pas inférieurs.

d. Tout le personnel de soutien scolaire — secrétaires, chauffeurs d'autobus, gardiens et commis de bureau — a lui aussi besoin d'être soigneusement renseigné sur les diverses catégories d'élèves qu'il pourra rencontrer dans les couloirs ou dans l'autobus. Ces employés revêtent autant d'importance pour les enfants en difficulté que les professeurs ou les administrateurs; en effet, la façon dont ils exprimeront ou tairont leurs sentiments peut avoir de sérieuses répercussions sur le développement de l'image que l'enfant aura de lui-même et qui, le cas échéant, sera saine ou négative. Je me souviens, à ce propos, de l'époque où j'employais la thérapie par le jeu collectif auprès d'un petit groupe d'enfants affectivement perturbés et physiquement handicapés, du niveau du cours élémentaire. Pour ce faire, nous utilisions les locaux d'un jardin d'enfance désaffecté. À un moment donné, un gardien jeta un coup d'oeil par la vitre de la porte, entra et pointa un enfant en criant: "Vous savez ce que je lui ferais, à ce môme, s'il était à moi? Eh bien, je le collerais sur mon genou et il aurait droit à une bonne fessée!" Non seulement cet homme s'exprimait-il de façon incorrecte, mais on aurait difficilement pu considérer sa violente intervention intempestive comme un facteur thérapeutique ou susceptible d'aider au développement positif de l'image de soi chez un petit garçon de huit ans, souffrant de graves troubles affectifs. Nous oublions souvent de tenir compte du fait que le personnel de soutien scolaire est fréquemment en contact avec les élèves et, en particulier, avec les enfants handicapés. À l'instar des professeurs, ces employés perpétuent souvent des concepts historiquement dépassés et des attitudes stéréotypées à l'égard des différences. Et il ne faut pas

s'attendre à les voir changer du jour au lendemain, si on ne leur fournit pas des informations qui les aideront à modifier leur comportement. Lorsqu'on se trouve avec des jeunes en difficulté, on a affaire à un groupe minoritaire et, à ce titre, les dynamiques en jeu ne diffèrent pas de celles qui interviennent vis-à-vis des autres groupes minoritaires à caractère racial ou culturel: élèves noirs, élèves amérindiens, inuit, hispano-américains ou originaires des états du sud et de l'ouest des États-Unis, élèves francophones du Maine et de la Louisiane, élèves anglophones au Québec, etc. Les groupes minoritaires de quelque nature que ce soit — raciale, religieuse, affective, physique — ont énormément de choses en commun, dans la mesure où il s'agit des attitudes muettes ou manifestes adoptées à leur endroit. "Il me faut vous mieux connaître", disait si justement Anna aux enfants du roi de Siam. Tout est là, dans cette seule phrase. Mais apprendre à connaître un enfant handicapé va beaucoup plus loin que le seul fait d'avoir des contacts avec lui; cela veut aussi dire: posséder des connaissances solides sur son état.

e. Tous les enfants dits normaux qui fréquentent les écoles élémentaires et secondaires doivent, eux aussi, se familiariser avec l'idée qu'un enfant en difficulté puisse éventuellement fréquenter leur classe ou leur établissement. Il existe d'excellents supports visuels qui, intégrés aux périodes de discussions, aideront à accélérer les changements d'attitude et faciliteront l'acceptation. Il y a, entre autres, deux films particulièrement "provocateurs", diffusés par la Encyclopedia Britannica Educational Corporation: **Like You; Like Me** et **People You'd Like to Know.** L'un et l'autre s'avèrent de précieux outils lorsqu'on veut amener la discussion sur le sujet. Puisqu'on ne saurait exclure les enfants normaux des programmes d'intégration, il serait intéressant de rappeler les conclusions de recherches effectuées il y a déjà plusieurs années. On avait alors constaté que des adolescents handicapés (264) étaient presque unanimes à affirmer que c'étaient les adultes, bien plus que leurs camarades, qui insistaient sur leur handicap et les limites qu'il leur imposait (Cruickshank, 1955). Une autre étude avait permis d'observer, grâce à l'emploi de méthodes sociométriques, que la popularité ou le rejet d'un enfant normal ou handicapé ne dépend pas d'une différence physique évidente, mais des traits de caractère inhérents à la personnalité ou au comportement (Cruickshank, 1955b). Mais si les enfants normaux se préoccupent généralement assez peu des différences, ils ont tout de même besoin d'être guidés lorsque celles-ci doivent devenir partie intégrante de leurs activités quotidiennes.

f. Les parents de tous les enfants d'une communauté, que ces derniers soient normaux ou exceptionnels, doivent bien comprendre le nouveau programme qui sera appliqué dans les écoles fréquentées par leurs enfants. Puisqu'ils devront aider ceux-ci à accepter ceux de leurs camarades qui ne sont pas comme eux, d'une part,

et que, d'autre part, ils seront appelés à discuter de la situation avec leurs amis, ils doivent posséder des données afin de pouvoir étayer leur point de vue; et on est en droit d'espérer que celui-ci sera positif. Pas plus que les professeurs et le personnel de soutien, les parents ne pourront discuter logiquement ou agir correctement, en égard à ce problème, s'ils ne disposent pas d'informations poussées leur permettant de se faire une opinion.

g. Il nous reste finalement à voir un important sous-groupe de la communauté, celui des personnes âgées, ainsi que leurs organismes. Il faut bien faire comprendre à ces personnes, dont les revenus ne varient à peu près pas, et la nouvelle philosophie et le fait que l'intégration, si elle a lieu, ne coûtera pas plus cher que les classes autonomes. Les personnes âgées peuvent parler en toute liberté et de façon efficace au sein de leurs propres organisations, dans leurs clubs, les réunions paroissiales et autres. Mais si elles ne disposent pas des données pertinentes, elles pourront, sans le vouloir, desservir la communauté et, plus particulièrement, les écoles.

Il est relativement manifeste que, pour accomplir tout ce que nous venons de souligner brièvement, il faut tenir compte du facteur temps. Pareil programme est impossible à réaliser du jour au lendemain, et nous avons déjà vu qu'il ne saurait faire l'objet d'une simple décision administrative adoptée par les membres d'un conseil de l'éducation ou par un directeur d'école. Néanmoins, si c'est là la méthode qu'on se propose d'employer, on doit alors s'attendre à un "retour de manivelle" absolument inévitable et ce sont les enfants qui seront le plus durement touchés. Aucune communauté ne peut laisser une telle chose se produire.

3. Il nous faut admettre qu'il est indispensable pour toute province, état ou même système scolaire autonome de posséder toute la gamme des programmes d'enseignement. Pareille affirmation repose sur plusieurs prémisses.

   a. La société n'a jamais pleinement reconnu les droits des handicapés, bien que ceux-ci soient, pour une bonne part, protégés par des garanties constitutionnelles ou, à un niveau moindre, par les lois provinciales ou les règlements des commissions scolaires. La constitution des États-Unis stipule que: "Tous les hommes naissent égaux." Mais, ainsi que nous l'avons déjà dit, les handicapés constituent une minorité et nous les traitons d'une manière raciste. C'est pourquoi il fallait l'adoption d'une législation spéciale comme le règlement P.L. 94-142 (USA), mais celui-ci a été élaboré et voté trop rapidement pour être réellement efficace. On a également besoin de ramasser des fonds pour soutenir les cliniques et les écoles qui, contrairement à ce qui devrait exister, ne sont pas subventionnées à même les fonds publics.

   b. Il nous faut admettre que les attitudes démodées envers les handicapés sont non seulement vivaces mais encore de mise. Partout on entend dire d'un enfant qu'il est *sourd et stupide*. Un chauffeur

d'autobus passe devant un homme atteint d'infirmité motrice cérébrale et appuie sur le champignon en clamant: "Pas d'ivrognes dans mon autobus." Le jeune déficient mental est qualifié d'arriéré. Un centre d'accueil pour jeunes adultes atteints de déficience mentale a vu toutes ses fenêtres fracassées avant même que le groupe y ait aménagé. De jeunes déficients mentaux vivant dans un centre communautaire se sont vu refuser des billets qui leur auraient permis d'utiliser la piscine du centre. Si un enfant est épileptique, c'est parce qu'il dormait dans la même chambre que ses parents, alors que ceux-ci avaient des rapports sexuels! Les troubles caractériels sont héréditaires ou même mieux: "Si ses parents l'avaient envoyé régulièrement à l'église, il ne serait pas dans cet état." Devant des opinions et des attitudes aussi moyennâgeuses, il est étonnant de voir admettre que ces enfants puissent être mentalement sains.

c. Tout comme les méprises grossières à propos des handicaps, les sentiments de peur et de culpabilité sont encore des facteurs qui animent les gens. Alors que nous discutions du cas de son fils, un quadraplégique cérébral de 14 ans, un père m'a dit: "Vous vous rendez compte que, à l'école, on voulait lui faire suivre un cours d'éducation sexuelle! J'ai refusé. Dieu merci, c'est au moins là quelque chose dont je n'aurai pas à me soucier. Tom et les filles!" Ce qui n'a pas empêché Tom de se marier à 19 ans! Néanmoins, le raisonnement de son père est le même que celui qu'adoptent de nombreux parents et des citoyens encore plus nombreux, chaque fois qu'il s'agit de comprendre les véritables besoins des individus handicapés. Le comportement des parents envers leur propre enfant est souvent dominé par le sentiment de culpabilité qu'ils éprouvent du fait d'avoir donné naissance à un handicapé.

d. Les préceptes religieux sont encore très puissants quand on parle des handicapés. "Dieu a créé l'homme à son image", nous a-t-on appris. C'est pourquoi ceux qui ne sont pas le reflet de la perfection divine ne sont pas admis dans le sein de l'Église. Et, bien entendu, les écoles non plus ne devraient pas se préoccuper de leur sort. On croirait entendre Anita Bryant à propos d'une autre catégorie de marginaux!

Nous devons agir sur toutes ces attitudes parce que, dans le cas contraire, elles feront boule de neige et restreindront le concept d'intégration et de normalisation. L'enfant est trop faible pour pouvoir lutter contre les attitudes restrictives, peu importe la nature de son milieu éducationnel. Actuellement, à cause de toutes les lacunes dont nous venons de faire état, le fardeau de l'adaptation à une situation d'intégration repose lourdement sur l'enfant, un enfant qui n'est peut-être même pas capable de parler à son professeur de ses besoins, de ses particularités, de ses problèmes — et ce, indépendamment du fait que celui-ci prenne ou non le temps de l'écouter. De tels enfants se trouvent souvent coincés dans un terrible étau, constamment écrasés par des forces auxquelles ils ne

comprennent rien, mais dont ils sentent qu'elles sont la conséquence de la peur, de la culpabilité ou même de la haine éprouvée par l'adulte. Il existe de bons milieux d'intégration, mais ils sont si peu nombreux qu'on a du mal à en faire le compte. Dans la majorité des situations de normalisation, l'abus psychologique des enfants, subtil et souvent nié, est probablement aussi terrible que l'abus physique lui-même. Ces attitudes peuvent changer; mais il faut planifier un tel changement, ainsi que mes collègues et moi-même le pressentions, il y a quelques années, avant que "intégration" ne devienne un mot en vogue, et bien avant que Martin Luther King ne rende crédible le concept d'intégration et de normalisation (Haring, Stern et Cruickshank, 1958).

Par conséquent, un programme d'intégration doit comprendre bien d'autres éléments que ceux que nous avons mentionnés plus tôt ou auxquels nous avons fait allusion dans des paragraphes précédents.

1. Le placement sélectif des enfants dans les classes normales doit absolument se faire avec la participation des parents et de l'enfant concerné.

2. Il faut admettre que ce ne sont pas tous les enfants en difficulté qui peuvent ou doivent être placés dans des classes régulières.

3. Nous devrions admettre que, lorsqu'elle est adéquatement planifiée, l'intégration ne coûte pas plus cher que les classes autonomes spéciales.

4. Lorsqu'un programme de normalisation est instauré, le directeur d'école doit diminuer le ratio maître-élèves afin de rendre possible l'enseignement individualisé. Ici, de nombreuses variables entrent en ligne de compte, comme le degré d'incapacité, le niveau d'intelligence et la nature des besoins manifestés par les élèves normaux faisant partie de la classe d'intégration.

5. Les administrateurs scolaires doivent fournir aux classes d'intégration suffisamment de personnel auxiliaire et prévoir la participation de bénévoles.

6. Le professeur d'une classe régulière devra être secondé par des professeurs itinérants. Aucun enseignant n'est capable de résoudre, seul, tous les problèmes de tous les enfants, surtout lorsque certains de ces problèmes ont une origine neurologique ou encore lorsque le professeur est peu ou pas du tout familiarisé avec une incapacité donnée.

7. Les professeurs, les psychologues scolaires et autres spécialistes doivent se réunir fréquemment pour procéder à l'évaluation systématique des enfants en difficulté. Cela veut dire qu'il faudra prévoir, dans la plupart des commissions scolaires, des périodes de formation sur le tas.

8. La supervision de l'enseignement doit être fondée sur les progrès scolaires et l'acquisition de connaissances correspondant au niveau même de réussite de l'enfant. Il n'est pas question de vouloir être superviseur pour des raisons personnelles ou pour se mettre en vedette en commérant autour d'une tasse de café.

9. En tant qu'éducateurs spécialisés concernés par l'enseignement normalisé, il nous appartient de voir à ce que toutes les parties des établissements scolaires, sans exception, soient accessibles aux handicapés. Cela comprend les escaliers, les salles de bains, les gymnases et l'équipement sportif, les vestiaires, les salles de douches, les poignées de portes, les auditoriums, les fontaines murales, les comptoirs des cafétérias, les cabines téléphoniques, et ainsi de suite. Quelle que soit la nature de son incapacité, il n'est pas question qu'un enfant exceptionnel soit pénalisé par un environnement inadéquat et sur lequel il n'a absolument aucune emprise. Lorsque de tels aménagements sont impossibles, les éducateurs qui veulent, malgré tout, imposer la normalisation enfreignent la loi. Dans un tel cas, une seule conclusion s'impose: il n'y aura pas d'intégration. D'autre part, les administrateurs et les membres du conseil de l'éducation doivent évaluer les coûts avant de grimper sur le char de la victoire, au nom de l'intégration; et, de la façon dont certains exploitent le concept, il s'agit bien d'un char de la victoire. On a déjà vu une université investir $40,000 par salle de bains pour permettre aux étudiants handicapés d'y avoir accès.

Certains trouveront que la liste des choses à accomplir est passablement longue et qu'il est impossible d'en faire autant. Ce n'est pas impossible. Si nous nous lançons dans la normalisation de l'enseignement à l'intention des nombreux enfants en difficulté avant d'avoir entrepris tout ce qui vient d'être mentionné, nous nous exposons à des poursuites en justice de la part des parents et des enfants eux-mêmes. Il est fascinant de lire les comptes rendus des litiges qui ont eu lieu à cet égard, au cours de la dernière décennie; et il est encore plus désappointant de voir qu'une société moderne a besoin de ce genre d'incitation pour accomplir ce qui aurait dû être fait depuis déjà longtemps. Faute de programmes adéquatement élaborés et de leur corollaire qui est la formation sur le tas à tous les niveaux, nous consentons à des compromis qui auront, tôt ou tard, pour effet d'affecter la qualité de la profession et qui, en tout cas, ne risqueront pas de lui apporter quoi que ce soit. Inversement, si nous accomplissons ce qui a été suggéré:

1. l'esprit des préceptes législatifs remarquables du règlement P.L. 94-142 – ainsi que les principes éducationnels locaux aura été respecté;

2. tous les enfants se verront offrir les meilleures conditions possibles en matière d'éducation;

3. les enfants handicapés seront certains d'avoir droit à des méthodes d'enseignement tenant compte de leurs besoins inhabituels et souvent uniques, quelle qu'en soit la nature;

4. on sera parvenu à imposer partiellement l'idée des droits humains et juridiques des handicapés;

5. les parents dormiront mieux, et

6. les professeurs pourront se promener la tête haute, sachant qu'ils ont fait du bon travail.

Moins que cela est professionnellement illégal et humainement inacceptable.

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Étant donné qu'on a demandé à l'auteur de préparer ce texte en s'inspirant de l'ensemble même de son oeuvre, on ne trouvera que très peu de références, sinon aucune, à une bibliographie qui n'a cessé d'augmenter au cours des quinze dernières années.

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MAINSTREAMING IN QUEBEC

TEACHER COMPETENCIES IN AN INTEGRATED CLASSROOM

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MAINSTREAMING IN QUEBEC: TEACHER COMPETENCIES IN AN INTEGRATED CLASSROOM

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Volume IV

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INTRODUCTION

Today in Quebec "mainstreaming" is imminent. The policy is established in law; information on implementation is being gathered; pilot projects are underway, and educational institutions are bracing for action.

The collection of articles on "Mainstreaming and Learning Disabilities", of which this paper forms a part, has been developed in order to contribute further data and provoke useful dialogue around this critical issue.

This *Library Collection* includes the following pieces: a *philosophical overview* — and a word of warning — from the American experience of mainstreaming (Cruickshank, Vol. II, Vol. III); two careful analyses of the meaning of *"intégration" in the Quebec context* (Gélinas, Lavallée, Vol. V); a complete description of one *school board's experience* in implementing a mainstreaming program (Wener, O'Shaughnessy, Vol. VI); a comprehensive *reference guide* to current data on the subject (Katz, Vol. I) and an outline of some of the important effects of mainstreaming on the *child and his peers*. (Caglar, Vol. V).

This article by Professor Sokolyk (Vol. IV) complements these others, as it presents the viewpoint of the *university teacher-trainer* and focuses on the 'front-line' implementor of mainstreaming — the *classroom teacher*.

The author addresses the vital question of teacher competencies in the context of a mainstreamed class, reviewing the new literature and reporting on her very recent (December 1980) survey of Quebec educators — analysing their attitudes and expectations on this subject. In particular, she highlights the need for more in-service training, to help teachers 'fine-tune' their skills for an "integrated" future.

Like all of its companion volumes it offers no simple solutions, but through its scholarly, relevant and up-to-date perspective adds an important piece to the ongoing dialogue.

Karin David
Editor, Mainstreaming Series
GEMS

Dorothy Sokolyk

IDENTIFICATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER COMPETENCIES IN AN INTEGRATED ELEMENTARY CLASSROOM

What is the state of knowledge regarding the attitudes and competencies classroom teachers will require to function effectively in a "mainstreamed" classroom?

Many classroom teachers have been asked to teach handicapped pupils within an integrated context. In many instances the assumption is that teachers will adopt attitudes consistent with the underlying principles of an integration policy and that teachers have the necessary skills to assess pupil needs, design individualized programs, and function effectively on an interdisciplinary team.

There would probably be general agreement that many of the competencies included in a "mainstream" (the integration of handicapped pupils into regular classrooms is now metaphorically referred to as "mainstreaming") list of teaching competencies are generic competencies that a competent professional would have. It will be important to try and identify the more specific skills, knowledge and attitudes required of a classroom teacher to function effectively in a "mainstreamed" classroom characterized by new demands on the teacher to respond to a greater diversity of student needs and often in new role relationships with other colleagues and parents who share responsibility for the child's educational program.

As the front-line implementor, the classroom teacher is perhaps the most vital force in determining the outcome of a policy of integration. In Québec, as in many other places, a "steady state" or "declining state" in education is operating which directs attention to the immediate need of providing appropriate in-service training for teachers in our schools.

Although a critical element, the success of an integration policy does not rest entirely with the teaching cadre. In order to implement a policy of integration, the total educational system must respond in a coherent and well organized fashion. It will not be the purpose of this paper, however, to review the strategies of the change process nor the characteristics of innovation-resisting and innovation-producing organizations, nor the social and moral values which underlie social norms in schools and society.

The following quotation by Saranson and Doris (1978:37) summarizes succinctly the immensity of the problem:

> "Rhetoric aside, mainstreaming challenges the very nature of our society and it would be foolhardy to face the future as if the challenge will not be met by efforts to blunt it. Society and its dominant institutions do not change quickly."

The purpose of this paper is: a) to review the literature dealing with the competencies that have been identified as important for regular classroom teachers involved in the integration of children who previously have been in special classes or institutions; b) to report the results of a small survey of *Québec Educators* on the cognitive competencies of "mainstream" teachers and c) to review several models of in-service programs for regular classroom teachers to identify quality practices to prepare classroom teachers to function confidently and effectively in mainstreamed classrooms.

Teaching competencies

One of the important factors in the integration of special children into regular classrooms identified by Jones, Gottlieb, Guskin, Yoshida (1978: 593-594) is the willingness of the teacher to tailor the class lessons to accommodate to the individual needs of the handicapped child. The factors associated with the teacher's response include:

1) the teacher's self-perceived ability to teach a particular child
2) the extent to which a handicapped child deviates from the modal performance level of the children in the class
3) the teacher's attitude toward that child

The authors refer to a study by Gickling and Theobold (1975) who found that 85% of regular teachers reported that they felt that they lacked the necessary skills to teach exceptional children. An earlier study by Shotel, Iano and McGettigan (1972) showed that regular teachers' attitudes toward retarded children were negative and became increasingly more so after a year's experience teaching them. The teacher's self-perception of her ability as well as her attitude toward the handicapped child in her class appear to be important factors in the integration process.

Catherine Morsink (1980), Chairperson of the Department of Special Education at the University of Florida, spent a full semester teaching in a mainstreamed class with five to ten (depending on the definition) handicapped children in a class of twenty-four. According to Dr. Morsink, the

first competency required of a teacher is the ability to model acceptance of the handicapped child and to teach the children to value diversity. The classroom teacher helps most by facilitating acceptance.

His recommendation to teacher trainers in pre-service education programs is that they should make it clear to student teachers that they will be expected to deal with diversity rather than homogeneity, so that subsequently, as teachers in regular classrooms, they will be prepared to accept children who exhibit a range of differences.

Haisley and Gilberts (1978) have provided checklists to identify the individual competencies that teachers will need to provide effective classroom environments and appropriate learning programs for students in an integrated class. Haisley and Gilberts believe that it is important to separate and recognize the difference between: a) teaching skills and b) the philosophical underpinnings and knowledge that teachers will require to function effectively in an integrated class.

Monaco and Chiappetta (1978) report the competencies of mainstream teachers as perceived by the State Directors of Special Education. The competencies which were identified were used as a basis for a study of Quebec educators and will be reported in detail in the next section of this paper.

Redden and Blackhurst (1978) conducted a survey of regular elementary classroom teachers who were engaged in the mainstreaming process to obtain empirical evidence about teacher competencies. The authors reported general congruence with previous findings, but their study revealed greater concern with: 1) orientation strategies to facilitate mainstream entry; 2) the need to recognize the child as part of the class group; 3) as well as general competencies required for good teaching.

The six major functions identified in the Redden and Blackhurst study were:

1. Develop orientation strategies for mainstream entry
2. Assess needs and set goals
3. Plan teaching strategies and use of resources
4. Implement teaching strategies and use resources
5. Facilitate learning
6. Evaluate learning

The authors are careful to point out the limitations of the study, in terms of size of sample, and alert the reader to the fact that research is required to validate these competencies. The latter point is especially important to note.

Because of *P.L. 94-142, The Education for All Handicapped Children Act* (Public Law 94-142 was passed by the Congress of the United States of America in November, 1975), enormous activity has been generated in the United States in a search for appropriate models to direct the implementation of this law. Because of the urgency of transforming the re-

quirements of the law into educational practice, many descriptive models have been generated, but few have been subjected to the rigors of evaluation and consequently should be viewed only as tentative guidelines and not as validated theoretical models.

McCoy, Prehm and Lambert (1980) report an evaluation study of an in-service program in mainstreaming for elementary teachers. The article has many interesting features relevant to in-service training procedures, but is included here to identify the instructional competencies that were included in the training program.

1. Sensitization to the needs of the handicapped and the teacher's shared role in the education of the handicapped.
2. Management. The teachers learn to focus on the specific and observable behaviors of their students.
3. Good teaching practices refer to the application of learning principles to the delivery of instruction. The teachers are taught such procedures as shaping, cueing and fading within their own classrooms.
4. Individualization. This unit is carried out in the teacher's classroom during a five week period. The classroom teacher adapts some aspect of the curriculum or some materials to provide for the needs of one or more mainstreamed students.

Readers will quickly recognize the correspondence between the competencies listed in the McCoy, Prehm and Lambert study and those specified in the regulations of P.L. 94-142 which require the development of an individualized educational program (IEP) for every handicapped child.

The substantive elements of the training program infer particular educational values and assumptions about teacher behavior. It is clearly a behavioral approach characterized by highly specific, performance-based objectives, quantitative evaluative criteria and procedures that involve careful recording of progress. Before any model is selected for use it is important to recognize the underlying philosophy or value system that it represents.

According to the research conducted by Safer, Morrissey, Kaufmann and Lewis (1978) in connection with the preparation of IEP's, three factors are critical to the maintenance of teacher morale and job satisfaction:

a) a model of individualized education needs to be flexible enough to accommodate varying teacher beliefs and styles;
b) enormous amounts of time are required for the planning and preparation of IEP's and there is a need to recognize this as a critical problem;
c) a carefully designed in-service program based on a detailed assessment of the new skills teachers will need is required.

Although not designed as a solution to mainstreaming per se, the *Adaptive Learning Environments Program* developed at the University of Pittsburgh's Learning Research and Development Center is included for it espouses a philosophy of individualization for all students.

The salient characteristics of adaptive instruction are identified by Wang (1980) as: 1) diagnosis and monitoring of student learning progress; 2) the teaching of self-management skills and organizational supports, such as multi-age grouping and team teaching. When an instructional program is designed to accommodate the individual differences of all students, children with special needs can be helped without special labelling. To bring about such a learning environment fundamental changes are required in the structure of curricular materials, school organizational patterns, the teaching-learning process and student and teacher roles.

Ranking the Competencies of Mainstream Teachers: A Survey of Selected Groups of Québec Educators

The writer conducted a small survey (December, 1980) of three groups of Québec educators: a) the Coordinators of Special Education in the English sector (N = 16); b) a sample of M.Ed. graduates in Special Education (N = 16); c) a sample of graduate students presently enrolled in the M.Ed. Special Education Program at McGill University (N = 16). The number of returns that were received from each of the respective groups were 14, 11 and 15.

The study was designed to obtain information as to whether three groups of Québec Special Educators would have similar views about the relative merits of a selected group of teacher competencies related to mainstreaming, as well as to examine for possible differences between the views of Québec educators and State Directors of Special Education in the United States.

The study was a partial replication of the Monaco and Chiappetta study (1978) referred to in an earlier section of this paper. The Monaco and Chiappetta study used a three-round procedure to generate a list of competencies of mainstream teachers. In round one the State Directors of Special Education were asked to generate the competencies (skills, knowledge and attitudes) that mainstream teachers should possess. The responses were duplicated and distributed to a panel of five judges consisting of two teacher educators and three mainstream teachers. In round two, the State Directors identified on which level of Bloom's taxonomy mainstream teachers should be able to demonstrate the specified competencies. Round three had the State Directors rank the eleven competencies that had been selected by the panel of five judges.

Using the same list of eleven competencies, copies were mailed to the three groups of Québec educators previously specified.

For each group, the sums of ranks were totalled for each of the eleven items. Then using the sums of ranks, each competency was rank ordered. *Table I* is presented so that readers can see the differences among the groups. Further analysis of the results can be obtained by referring to the average ranks and the high and low scores provided for each item. High and low scores are provided only for the Québec educator groups.

The original study did not include that information for the State Directors so this data could not be included.

TABLE 1

	U.S. State Directors	QUEBEC														
		Sp. Ed. Directors (English Sector)					M.Ed. Sp. Ed. Graduates (McGill)					M.Ed. Sp. Ed. Students (McGill)				
No. of Respondents	30	14					11					15				
Cognitive Competencies of Mainstream Teachers ITEM	ΣR	R.O.	AV.R.	ΣR	R.O.	AV.R.	H	L	ΣR	R.O.	AV.R.	H	L	ΣR	R.O.	AV.R.	H	L
1	119	1	3.9	55	2	3.9	10	1	60	4	5.5	9	1	75	4	5.0	8	2
2	121	2	4.0	83	4	5.9	11	1	55	3	5.0	10	1	44	2	2.9	7	1
3	128	3	4.3	71	3	5.1	10	2	61	5	5.5	11	1	57	3	3.8	8	1
4	164	4	5.6	41	1	2.9	10	1	36	1	3.3	8	1	33	1	2.2	8	1
5	178	5	5.9	107	10	7.6	11	2	88	11	8.0	11	4	106	9	7.1	10	1
6	183	6	6.1	99	8	7.1	10	2	48	2	4.4	10	1	126	10	8.4	11	4
7	196	7	6.5	116	11	8.3	11	3	76	8	6.9	11	1	91	5	6.1	10	2
8	206	8	6.8	84	5	6.0	10	1	79	9	7.1	10	3	101	7	6.7	10	1
9	207	9	6.9	9	6.9	11	4	85	10	7.7	11	4	99	6	6.6	10	3	
10	222	10	7.4	88	6	6.3	9	3	64	6	5.8	8	4	102	8	6.8	11	4
11	240	11	8.0	92	7	6.6	11	1	75	7	6.8	11	1	154	11	10.3	11	7

*ΣR = SUM OF RANKS
R.O. = RANK ORDER
AV.R. = AVERAGE RANK
H = HIGHEST RANK
L = LOWEST RANK

TABLE II

Cognitive Competencies of Mainstream Teachers	U.S.A. State Directors	Québec Educators		
		Sp. Ed. Directors (Eng. Sector)	M.Ed.Sp.Ed. Graduates (McGill)	M.Ed.Sp.Ed. Students (McGill)
No. of Respondents	30	14	11	15
ITEM NO.				
1. Individualizes Instruction	1	2	4	4
2. Comprehends the Abilities of Handicapped and Exceptional	2	4	3	2
3. Evaluates and Diagnoses Student's Ability and Progress	3	3	5	3
4. Provides a Humanly Supportive Environment	4	1	1	1
5. Uses Behavioral Management Strategies	5	10	11	9
6. Works Cooperatively with Adults in the School Setting	6	8	2	10
7. Utilizes the Psychology of Learning and Instruction	7	11	8	5
8. Evaluates the Utility of Various Instructional Strategies	8	5	9	7
9. Interprets Task Analysis	9	9	10	6
10. Evaluates the Appropriateness of Resources for Program Use	10	6	6	8
11. Promotes the Mainstream Concept	11	7	7	11

Table II presents the list of competencies with the ranks derived from the sums of ranks. The interpretation which follows is derived from *Table II*.

Interpretation

Item 4 Provides a Humanely Supportive Environment
The immediate difference noted was the fact that all Québec educators ranked this item as *one*, whereas the State Directors in the U.S. ranked it as four. The need for teachers to model acceptance and to create a positive climate in which diversity and differences are acceptable, seems to be of paramount concern.

Item 1 Individualized Instruction
By ranking this item one the U.S. State Directors appear to be reflecting the perception that individualizing instruction is the central component of the mainstreaming policy in the United States. P.L. 94-142 requires an individual education plan (IEP) for all handicapped students. In Québec the Special Education Directors ranked this item second; the teacher groups, fourth. There is no compulsory legislation in Québec requiring the formulation of an IEP, and one suspects that it is not a frequent practice. It is possible that many students have been integrated into regular classrooms without the formality of an individualized educational program. This may explain the teachers' response.

Item 6 Works Cooperatively with Adults in the School Setting
In the United States the formation of teams composed of a wide range of professional expertise, as well as parents, are formed to plan, monitor and evaluate the progress of each handicapped child. The Canadian M.Ed. Special Education graduate ranked this competency second — in contrast to the much higher rankings by all other groups. (N.B. the higher the ranking number, the less important). A possible explanation is the fact that many Special Education graduates function in a consultative-type role within their schools and have had experience in working cooperatively with a variety of professionals and parents. This group appears to be reflecting the need for teachers to be skilled in small group interaction.

Item 2 Comprehends the Abilities of Handicapped and Exceptional Children
The importance for teachers to have an understanding of the capabilities of students with specific handicapping conditions who enter their classes is an obvious competency, reflected in the ranking of all groups.

Item 3 Evaluates and Diagnoses Students' Ability and Progress
The ranks for this item (3, 5, 3) reflect general agreement about the importance of this competency. In the United States the procedures are required by law and are reflected in the format of the IEP. The disparity between the results of this item, however, and the results of Item 5 warrant some reflection.

Item 5 Uses Behavioral Management Strategies
If one examines the sums of Ranks of U.S. Directors there was a considerable difference between Items 3 and 5. The Québec educators ranked Item 5 very high (less important) in contrast to Item 3. The process of

diagnosing, monitoring and evaluating progress (especially with reference to P.L. 94-142) necessitates a behavioral approach using systematic and precise management procedures. It may be that the heading for Item 5 triggered a response in Québec educators that equated a Skinnerian approach with the term "Behavioral Management". There may be a widespread need to examine what procedures and organizational structures are required to design, implement and evaluate instruction using behavioral management strategies.

Summary

The preceding observations are offered only to stimulate further questions for subsequent study. *There is an urgent need to obtain information about the present practices of mainstreaming in Québec schools.*

What practices are teachers using successfully in regular classrooms to accommodate students with different types of handicaps? The notion of integrating handicapped students is not entirely new in the province of Québec, and many positive instances could undoubtedly be documented. Is there a pervading attitude among Québec teachers that they lack the necessary skills to teach exceptional children? Is this perhaps a misconception about their professional capabilities?

A recent study by Ringlaben and Price (1981) reported that 86.1% of the teachers surveyed reported that they had not taken course work in the area of mainstreaming. Large numbers of teachers reported very limited knowledge of mainstreaming. The authors raise the question of the relative merits of traditional course work versus in-service preparation. At this point in time, in view of the "steady state" among the teaching cadre, there seems to be considerable merit in considering in-service education as means of support to teachers in integrated classrooms.

In-Service

Joyce and Showers (1980) reported a two-year study which examined the available research on the ability of teachers to acquire teaching skills and strategies. The results were very positive. Teachers can "fine-tune" existing approaches rather easily, although mastery of new techniques requires more intensive training. The following training components are very effective, especially powerful when used in combination:

1. Presentation of the theory or the description of the skill or strategy by reading, lectures and discussions.
2. Modeling or demonstration of the skills, live demonstration through film, television or other media.
3. Practice in simulated and classroom settings with peers or small groups of children.
4. Structured and open-ended feedback (information about performance).
5. Coaching for application.

At a recent conference (Teacher Education Division, CEC, January 7-9,

1981) one of the activities was a day long conference which reported the results of a year long study of a task force (Quality Practices Task Force of National In-Service Network) established to lay the groundwork for the development of a service delivery system for the improvement of in-service education for general educators working with students with handicaps. Six categories of quality practice statements have been developed. (See Appendix for a complete list)

1. The first cluster describes the importance of creating an in-service system which is institutionalized – a part of the organization, recognizing the impact upon the organization as well as on individuals.
2. The literature supports the view that in-service must be planned, delivered and evaluated in ways that are collaborative.
3. Programs should be based on identified needs.
4. Programs should be responsive to individuals and local conditions.
5. Activities should be accessible to participants.
6. Evaluation should be used to strengthen the planning, implementation and effectiveness of the program.

Conclusions

The *Plan d'Action* has affirmed the right to education for handicapped children and youth, recommending procedures to maximize the interaction between the handicapped and the non-handicapped. Each school, as a primary institution of society, is now expected to promote the social integration of all members of its respective community, with individual attention to the needs of each handicapped child. (*L'École québécoise énoncé de politiques et plan d'action*. Ministère de l'Éducation du Québec, 1979)

The role that classroom teachers will play in the implementation of an integration policy is perhaps the most critical element in the total process. In this regard the needs of classroom teachers should be a primary concern in planning in-service programs. The model developed by the National Inservice Network appears to offer helpful guidelines.

The review of the literature on critical teaching competences required of teachers in integrated classrooms is embryonic. Descriptive information of ongoing successful practices in Quebec schools would provide a valuable source of information.

What the contribution of the university might, or should be, in assisting in the development of in-service programs, related to mainstreaming practices for teachers, is a question that merits further consideration. In addition, there are those who believe that a review of undergraduate teacher education programs is warranted.

There does appear to be a need for new types of cooperative planning by several constituences of the educational enterprise. Guidelines for the collaborative efforts of researchers, supervisors and teachers have been

developed by Tikunoff and Ward (Oliver in Joyce 1980:395). Interested groups representing each of the constituencies might forge new links to seek combined solutions to difficult problems. This could lead to the development of a coordinating body as well as an information network. As a beginning, descriptive information could be collected on a number of critical issues and results fed to the network.

There is a need for administrators to do some long range planning. There is little hope for constructive change with a shot-gun approach to in-service training, and the problems will not go away tomorrow.

The time has come to realistically assess our situation, to understand fully the implications of an integration policy and to take constructive action to move toward a new level of professional commitment for the advancement of knowledge and improved educational practice in our schools and universities for the benefit of all the students we serve.

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APPENDIX

I. Quality Practice in In-Service Education recognizes that programs must be integrated into and supported by the organization within which they function.

A formally adopted written plan of in-service for the district or agency should be prepared. It should describe all components of a comprehensive system. This plan can then be used as a basis for evaluation and on-going planning, for communication purposes and to build support for the program.

The in-service education program is an integral part of the total organizational system within which it functions.

Written policy exists to support the in-service education program.

The assumptions and the theoretical rationale underlying the in-service program are explicitly stated.

The in-service education program design describes the organizational role, responsibility and support for planning, implementation and evaluation of the program.

Procedures exist to assure the program of adequate fiscal, material, staff and facility resources.

Federal, state, and local policies pertaining to the in-service education program are studied by planning participants.

The in-service program design includes plans for facilitating the implementation of quality practices throughout the system.

The in-service program design is long range and provides for on-going implementation, support and evaluation.

Information about in-service activities is systematically communicated to all audiences concerned.

II. Quality Practices in In-Service Education are designed to result in programs which are collaborative.

Collaborative approaches to in-service programs are the most effective, including participants, students, and the community in program planning, delivery and evaluation can result in increased motivation, strengthened support and maximal resources.

The in-service education program provides opportunities for all school personnel to act as participants.

Personnel from agencies involved or affected by the in-service education program are included in the planning process.

All groups which are affected by the in-service education program, including parents and students, have a voice in decisions regarding the program.

In-service activities include students as teachers/learners whenever possible.

Procedures exist to assure inclusion of community resources for the in-service education program.

Participants and others affected by the in-service education program are major providers of data for evaluation.

III. Quality Practices in In-Service Education are designed to result in programs which are needs based.

In-service education is a support service for the total educational system. It draws its legitimacy from the contribution it makes to strengthening the system's programs and services for students.

The in-service program design recognizes the vital importance of the participants' perceptions of the need for the training proposed.

An assessment of the strengths and needs of the prospective participants and the systems is part of the in-service program design.

In-service program goals are derived primarily from a set of educational goals for students, including students with handicaps.

In-service content and strategies are drawn from and designed to meet the assessed needs of students, personnel and organizations.

Programs include activities to meet the needs of leadership personnel, with special attention to building principals.

IV. Quality Practices in In-Service Education are designed to result in programs which are responsive to changing needs.

Responsive in-service, built upon identified needs, meets those needs and is adaptable to on-going changes in programs, personnel and conditions. It is planned and delivered in ways that recognize the findings of research on innovation and change theories.

The in-service program design defines a dynamic and continuous process that is flexible and responsible to changing needs and new requirements.

In-service activities are individualized, insofar as possible, to meet the needs and goals of individual participants.

The in-service program design includes goals which are designed to reduce undue stress and to increase both competence and morale among program participants.

In-service providers are selected on the basis of qualifications for specific tasks.

In-service activities make use of peer-teaching strategies and participant-created materials, whenever appropriate.

On-site demonstration with students are included when appropriate to the in-service education experience.

Participants are provided with positive feedback on their progress and with follow-through consultation which is kept separate from the system's personnel evaluation procedures.

V. Quality Practices in In-Service Education are designed to result in programs which are accessible.

The in-service program is readily accessible in time and location, and is planned to provide the best conditions for learning.

In-service activities are offered in a logical sequence.

In-service activities are offered frequently.

In-service activities are planned and conducted with minimum interference to the students' on-going instructional program.

In-service activities are conducted primarily during participants' normal working hours.

In-service activities are conducted, whenever possible, on the participants' work site.

In-service locations are selected to provide the most appropriate setting for the knowledge, skills and attitudes to be acquired and demonstrated.

VI. Evaluation of in-service activities is an essential component of a quality program, and should be designed and conducted in ways compatible with the underlying philosophy and approach of the program.

Information drawn from evaluation can help determine the degree of effectiveness of the professional development experiences. On-going evaluation can also be used to strengthen planning and implementation activities.

The Task Force defines evaluation as the systematic collection of information about the context and operation of in-service programs which can be used to: 1) determine needs; 2) plan programs; 3) revise and redevelop activities; and 4) judge impact.

Decisions concerning the in-service education program consider on-going program evaluation by program participants and others affected by the program.

The in-service program design includes both short-term and long-term goals.

The in-service evaluation design is comprehensive and addresses the process components: planning, implementation, and dissemination.

The in-service evaluation design is responsible to knowledge, skill, and effective outcomes.

Data from evaluation is used for on-going planning of the in-service program.

The in-service education evaluation design is reliable and valid.

The evaluation design includes plans to frequently report data on all major aspects of the program — including impact on students — to all major audiences.

The documentation of the impact of in-service activities should include the perceptions of students themselves whenever appropriate.

For additional copies of this brochure or the complete final report please write:

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L'INTÉGRATION AU QUÉBEC: TROIS PERSPECTIVES

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L'ASSOCIATION QUÉBÉCOISE
POUR LES ENFANTS AYANT DES TROUBLES D'APPRENTISSAGE

Volume V

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INTRODUCTION

L'intégration. . . c'est un esprit, une forme de pensée, une centration sur le mieux-être de l'individu à l'intérieur de la société inévitable.

Parfois il est bon d'alimenter cet esprit, de la confronter. C'est pourquoi nous avons cru intéressant de proposer ces textes à votre réflexion, espérant que les intéressés, parents, professionnels et administrateurs puissent en tirer parti et que, de dialogues fructueux, surgissent des actions créatrices.

Merci aux auteurs qui ont gracieusement accepté de nous livrer leur esprit.

Thérèse Costopoulos, Ps.E.
Directrice des Service professionnels,
AQETA

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POUR UNE REFORMULATION DE LA PROBLÉMATIQUE DE L'INTÉGRATION

Depuis déjà plusieurs années, l'école régulière fait face à une demande sans cesse croissante afin qu'elle ouvre ses portes aux enfants dits inadaptés. Que ce soit pour des raisons humanitaires, scientifiques, économiques ou encore par obligation légale, l'école doit dorénavant participer au mouvement d'"intégration". Cependant, il ne suffit pas d'une décision administrative pour amener cette dernière à adhérer à un tel mouvement. La problématique de l'intégration est beaucoup plus complexe que cela.

Je vais tenter dans les quelques pages qui suivent de faire l'analyse de cette problématique telle qu'elle se présente actuellement, et de proposer une vision différente de l'intégration ayant pour effet de redéfinir cette problématique, afin de réorienter nos efforts en vue de démarginalisation de notre système scolaire.

La problématique actuelle

Si intégrer c'est "faire entrer dans un ensemble" (Petit Larousse), la problématique de l'intégration implique donc que l'on s'interroge sur la nature de *l'ensemble*, sur *ce qui doit y entrer (le quoi)* et sur *comment* faire le tout.

Actuellement on peut considérer que la problématique de l'intégration aborde ces questions à partir des éléments de la figure I.

FIGURE I
LES ÉLÉMENTS DE LA PROBLÉMATIQUE ACTUELLE DE L'INTÉGRATION

Au niveau de	**On fait référence à**
l'ensemble	l'école régulière
quoi entrer	l'enfant inadapté
comment	la mise en place de modèle de participation (Ex : CASCADE, MAINSTREAMING de type placement)

La préoccupation que l'on retrouve dans nos milieux scolaires actuellement face à l'intégration réside en grande partie dans l'identification des types de classes régulières, de services spéciaux et de classes spéciales qu'il est nécessaire d'offrir dans une école régulière pour y intégrer les enfants inadaptés.

Le modèle d'organisation des mesures spéciales d'enseignement ou système en cascade (fig. II) est un exemple de résultat de cette préoccupation. Il s'agit là d'une hiérarchie de services identifiant *l'ensemble* en termes de milieux scolaires comme la classe et l'école. Dans ces différents modèles (Deno 1970, Reynolds 1962, Willenberg 1968) on considère que l'intégration existe si l'enfant inadapté est placé dans les niveaux de services situés à même l'école régulière. Les autres niveaux relèvent plus d'une approche ségrégative que d'une tendance à l'intégration.

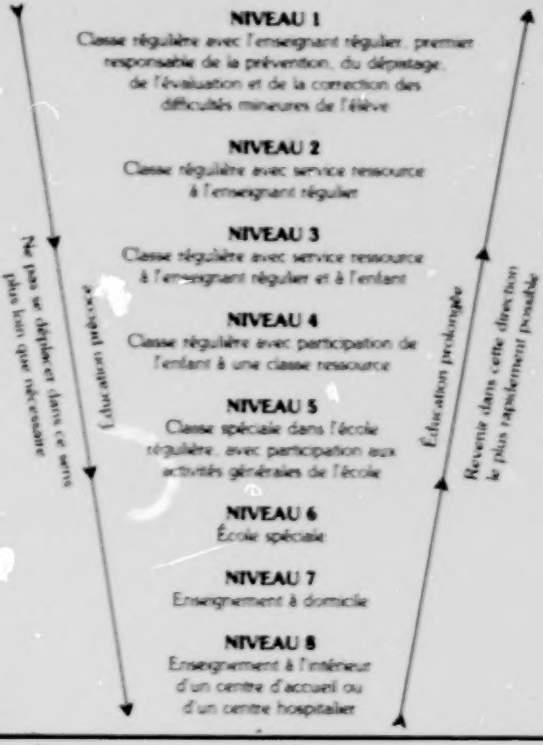
Proposer l'école régulière comme milieu d'insertion implique, dans ces modèles de type cascade, que l'on met l'accent sur une intégration de type physique. Donc dans la problématique actuelle, intégrer c'est entrer les enfants en difficulté dans l'école régulière (ensemble). Il faut donc supposer que cette école régulière est vraiment celle que nous devons privilégier, devenant ainsi la norme. . . l'école normale! Or cette école est de plus en plus remise en question et à partir de points de référence bien différents. Pour Fortin (1980) la société québécoise reproche à l'école son manque de clarté, son manque de cohérence et son caractère artificiel. De plus on accuse régulièrement l'école de "créer" des inadaptés.

Comment peut-on vouloir intégrer dans ce lieu des enfants ayant des difficultés d'apprentissage et de comportement? On affirme qu'il y a 25% des enfants qui ne sont pas aptes à suivre "un enseignement normal", pourtant ce sont ces mêmes enfants que l'on veut intégrer en classe régulière! C'est pour le moins paradoxal. Il faut donc changer l'école régulière, l'adapter à l'intégration.

FIGURE II

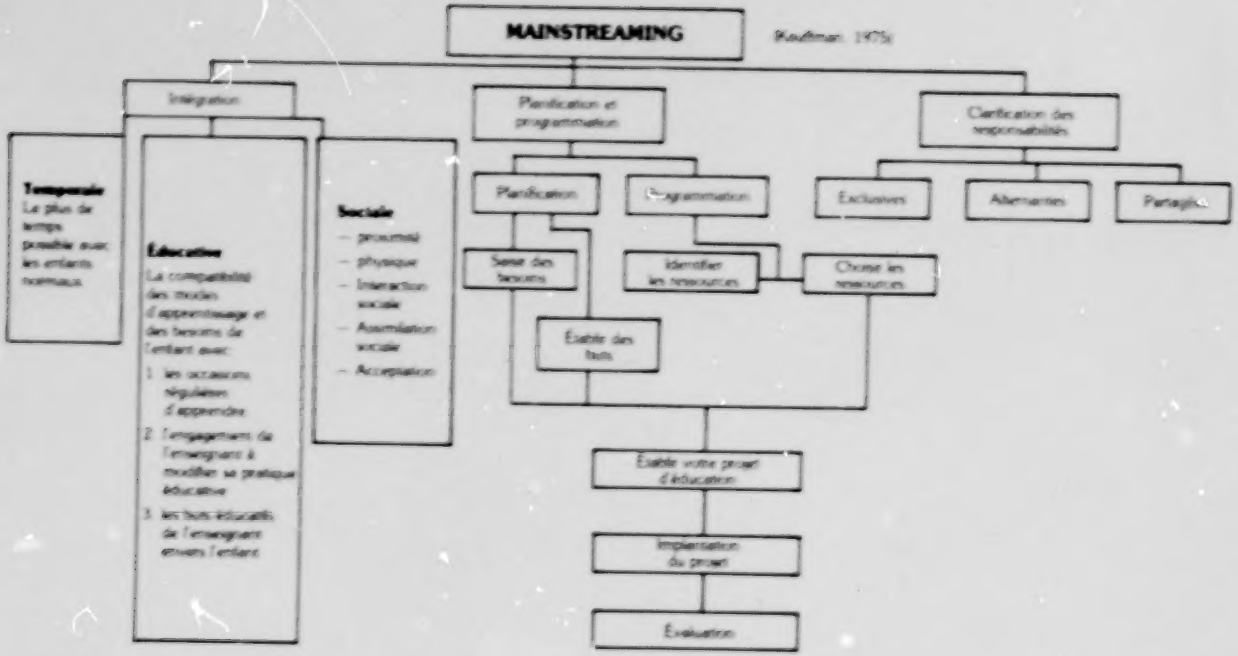
LE SYSTÈME EN CASCADE

Un modèle intégré d'organisation des mesures spéciales d'enseignement*


NIVEAU 1
Classe régulière avec l'enseignant régulier, premier responsable de la prévention, du dépistage, de l'évaluation et de la correction des difficultés mineures de l'élève
NIVEAU 2
Classe régulière avec service ressource à l'enseignant régulier
NIVEAU 3
Classe régulière avec service ressource à l'enseignant régulier et à l'enfant
NIVEAU 4
Classe régulière avec participation de l'enfant à une classe ressource
NIVEAU 5
Classe spéciale dans l'école régulière, avec participation aux activités générales de l'école
NIVEAU 6
École spéciale
NIVEAU 7
Enseignement à domicile
NIVEAU 8
Enseignement à l'intérieur d'un centre d'accueil ou d'un centre hospitalier
Ne pas se déplacer dans ce sens plus loin que nécessaire
Éducation intégrée
Éducation préscolaire
Revenir dans cette direction le plus rapidement possible

*Adapté de B.R. Gearheart: **Organization and Administration of Educational Programs for Exceptional Children**, Springfield, Ill., Thomas, 1974, p. 242

Kauffman (1975) nous a donné des indices du travail que l'on doit effectuer pour que l'école régulière soit un lieu d'intégration. La figure III nous indique qu'il y a trois types d'intégration dans la perspective du Mainstreaming: l'intégration temporelle, l'intégration pédagogique et l'intégration sociale. Le modèle de Kauffman est beaucoup plus explicite que le modèle en cascade sur les éléments à explorer en milieu scolaire régulier pour favoriser l'intégration. Il faut, selon Kauffman, revoir notre planification et nos programmes en plus de clarifier les responsabilités des différents intervenants. Ce sont donc là des composantes dynamiques qui diffèrent des composantes physiques (classe et école) d'un modèle de type cascade. L'ensemble à intégrer est analysé dans sa dynamique et non seulement dans ses modes de classement d'enfants.


MAINSTREAMING
Reuffman 1975
Intégration
Planification et programmation
Clarification des responsabilités
Temporelle
Le plus de temps possible avec les enfants normaux
Éducative
La compatibilité des modes d'apprentissage et des besoins de l'enfant avec:
1. les aptitudes régulières d'apprendre
2. l'engagement de l'enseignant à modifier sa pratique éducative
3. les buts éducatifs de l'enseignant envers l'enfant
Sociale
– proximité
– physique
– Interaction sociale
– Assimilation sociale
– Acceptation
Planification
Programmation
Exclusives
Alternatives
Partagées
Sonder des besoins
Établir des buts
Identifier les ressources
Choisir les ressources
Établir votre projet d'éducation
Implantation du projet
Évaluation

C'est peut-être ce qui fait dire aux "réalistes" que l'intégration dans l'école régulière implique des changements majeurs. Si on observe des lenteurs dans ces changements, on a souvent tendance à mettre le tort sur les enseignants en prétextant que ces derniers ne veulent pas l'intégration ou, plus positivement, on fait appel à leur humanisme pour accepter "certains" enfants dans leur classe. Ces deux attitudes relèvent je crois d'une problématique mal cernée et dès lors de solutions hâtives, voire simplistes et partielles et tout cela sur le dos des enfants à intégrer.

L'intégration à l'école dite régulière même modifiée, changée dans sa planification et ses programmes, est certes un pas vers l'amélioration et la démarginalisation des services aux enfants en difficulté. Cependant il faut peut-être s'interroger si notre modèle actuel d'école régulière, même si certaines pratiques y sont changées, peut nous permettre d'éviter la catégorisation et la marginalisation basées sur des types d'inadaptations. Si l'école régulière est celle qui est organisée par classe-âge et comporte des programmes-années divisés par matière où bien souvent le maître enseigne à l'enfant moyen dans un climat de compétition à partir de manuels, alors y tenter des changements de planification et de programmes n'est pas suffisant, il faut redéfinir autrement l'ensemble à intégrer. Il ne faut pas croire à la simplicité de cette vision de l'intégration. Il faut définir autrement le milieu à intégrer. Il faut recadrer le débat, le faire passer de la notion d'école-milieu à l'école-processus. L'ensemble à intégrer doit être défini comme un système de processus éducatif. C'est la perspective d'une nouvelle problématique de l'intégration.

Comme on l'a vu à la figure I, la problématique de l'intégration tente d'identifier des moyens d'insertion d'enfants dits inadaptés dans l'école régulière. Tout repose sur le dos de l'enfant. Dès lors on se demande si ceux-ci (TGA, MSA, etc.) peuvent aller en classe régulière ou encore si ceux-là (déficients légers ou handicapés sensoriels) peuvent fréquenter l'école régulière. Seront-ils aptes? Pouvons-nous les accepter? Sans pousser cette caricature trop loin on a souvent l'impression que l'on cherche désespérément le tableau à cases multiples nous permettant de statuer quants dans un processus éducatif. Il faut donc aussi redéfinir ce qu'il faut tera ensuite à déterminer nos ratio maître-élèves en conséquence et à calculer le coût de tout cela à partir de taux d'incidence prophétique.

Or, nous connaissons tous les effets négatifs d'une telle démarche où les étiquettes de toutes sortes accompagnent l'enfant peu importe son milieu d'insertion. Posez le problème de l'intégration dans notre système scolaire et tout de suite on fait référence aux enfants problèmes que l'on souhaite placer en classe régulière. Ou intégrer, ou faire partie d'un ensemble n'est pas l'affaire que des enfants inadaptés, mais de tous les intervenants dans un processus éducatif. Il faut donc aussi redéfinir ce qu'il faut intégrer, en d'autres termes ce n'est pas l'enfant qu'il faut intégrer mais bien certaines interventions éducatives.

Je ne crois pas que l'intégration de tous les enfants inadaptés à l'école régulière soit possible dans la formulation de la problématique actuelle.

Il y aura toujours, et le modèle en cascade nous le signale, des milieux à part pour les cas sévères. Cependant comment peut-on définir la sévérité autrement que par la notion de déficience et cela en termes comme le Q.I. ou encore de comportement par rapport à la norme ou bien de rendement académique normal. Ainsi on n'échappe pas vraiment à l'étiquettage ni aux catégorisations sans signification pédagogique: savoir qu'un enfant est déficient mental (Q.I.) nous informe peu sur sa façon d'apprendre! Or l'école est un milieu organisé d'apprentissage à partir d'interventions éducatives. Ce sont, je crois, ces interventions qu'il faut tenter d'intégrer et non pas l'enfant.

Ainsi, nous pourrons intégrer les compétences de chacun, enfants, parents, enseignants et autres dans une perspective d'intervention pédagogique dans un ensemble de processus éducatif orienté vers certaines finalités propres à tous les intervenants. C'est là une nouvelle façon de poser le problème *de ce qui doit être intégré*.

La problématique redéfinie

Lors de travaux de recherche sur la reformulation de la problématique de l'intégration, Gélinas (1978), j'ai essayé de cerner cette dernière à partir de la théorie générale des systèmes. C'est-à-dire qu'en considérant l'école comme un système éducatif il est possible d'éviter de tomber dans le piège de l'intégration de type classement d'enfants inadaptés, mais plutôt de se centrer sur l'intégration des interventions pédagogiques dans un tout identifié en terme de processus éducatif.

À partir de l'idée qu'un système est un ensemble d'éléments et de leurs attributs en interaction vers l'atteinte de buts, il est possible de se faire une représentation d'un système éducatif répondant aux conditions suivantes:

1. le modèle doit être basé uniquement sur des compétences (pour éviter le piège des déficiences);
2. le modèle ne doit comporter aucune catégorisation par type d'inadaptation (pour éviter les interprétations négatives);
3. le modèle doit considérer uniquement des éléments qui ont une signification éducative (pour éviter l'approche médicale);
4. le modèle implique différents intervenants (enfants, parents, enseignants, etc.) (nous sommes tous en apprentissage).

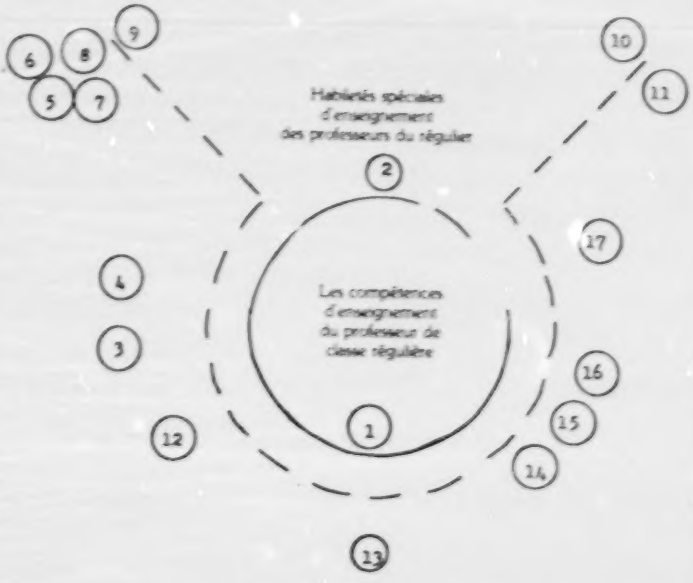
De plus ce modèle s'inscrit dans la problématique de l'intégration telle que présentée à la figure IV.

FIGURE IV
LES ÉLÉMENTS DE LA PROBLÉMATIQUE REFORMULÉE DE L'INTÉGRATION

au niveau de	**on fait référence à**
l'ensemble	système éducatif en termes de processus
quoi entrer	des interventions pédagogiques en termes de compétences
comment	par des modèles systémiques d'interaction pédagogique

Maynard C. Reynolds et Bruce Balow, en 1972, ont proposé un modèle d'organisation de l'éducation spéciale qui représente une amorce de reformulation de la problématique de l'intégration tout en introduisant une certaine perspective systémique. La figure V représente leur modèle de relation entre l'éducation spéciale et l'éducation régulière.

FIGURE V
LES RELATIONS ENTRE L'ÉDUCATION RÉGULIÈRE ET L'ÉDUCATION SPÉCIALE (Reynolds and Balow, 1972)


Habiletés spéciales d'enseignement des professeurs du régulier
Les compétences d'enseignement du professeur de classe régulière
Les compétences des enseignants de l'éducation spéciale

Cette relation se présente en termes d'interventions pédagogiques. Ils introduisent la notion d'"instructional system" ou système d'interventions pédagogiques comme étant un ensemble d'actions, de programmes ou de matériels pouvant être mis à profit pour atteindre des objectifs d'apprentissage avec l'enfant.

La perspective systémique peut nous permettre de pousser plus loin l'esprit du modèle de Reynolds et Balow. À partir du principe d'un seul système éducatif pour tous, en y plaçant différents intervenants et en identifiant leur interaction en termes de composantes reliées à l'apprentissage, il est possible de trouver réponse à une problématique reformulée de l'intégration. En fait on intègre l'éducation spéciale (en termes d'interventions pédagogiques) dans un processus éducatif global pour tous les intervenants.

Il nous faut donc, tant dans les milieux d'enseignement que dans les milieux de recherche, réorienter nos efforts, recadrer notre préoccupation d'intégration. Nous pourrons aussi définir le milieu éducatif intégré pour tous et pour ce faire voici quelques propositions de recherche que nous pouvons mener.

- Développer des outils nous permettant d'identifier les compétences et habiletés en matière d'apprentissage et d'enseignement des intervenants dans le système éducatif (enfants, parents, enseignants, PNE et administrateurs).
- Établir des modalités d'interaction de ces compétences, modéliser le système éducatif.
- Identifier des modalités de prise en charge par les intervenants des finalités de leur propre système éducatif.

Ce sont là quelques avenues de recherche et de pratique que nous pouvons explorer. La finalité de ces recherches étant d'en arriver à organiser un milieu éducagtif articulé sur la mise en relation pour fin d'apprentissage des compétences des différents intervenants. Dans une telle perspective, l'enseignement et l'apprentissage sont les deux polarités dynamiques s'appliquant à tous les intervenants. Évidemment ceci implique que nous considérions que chaque être humain est à la fois capable d'apprentissage et d'enseignement.

Conclusion

Tous les éducateurs préoccupés par l'intégration reconnaissent qu'il y a beaucoup de travail à faire en vue d'atteindre le noble objectif de la démarginalisation de notre système scolaire. Pour ma part, je crois qu'il faut continuer le travail des pionniers dans ce domaine tout en réorientant nos efforts dans la perspective systémique que j'ai voulu introduire dans ces quelques pages. Je suis conscient que nous en sommes qu'au tout début d'une longue recherche mais que je soupçonne d'être très prometteuse.

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Marcel Lavallée, Dr. en Sc. Pol.

OÙ EN EST-ON AVEC L'INTÉGRATION AU QUÉBEC?

INTRODUCTION

Si l'on doit parler d'intégration des enfants en difficulté d'apprentissage et d'adaptation aujourd'hui, c'est parce qu'on se pose la question sur le rôle même de l'école. Depuis 20 ans au Québec déjà, nous subissons avec plus ou moins d'enthousiasme, avec plus ou moins de réticences, les tentatives et les soubresauts de la réforme — et je dirais même — des réformes de l'éducation et de l'école au Québec. Deux principes reviennent toujours à la pensée lorsque nous examinons ce qui se passe.

Le premier de ces principes, c'est la démocratisation, i.e. la tentative du système scolaire à scolariser toute la population.

Le second principe qui relève plus des moyens que de la finalité, c'est la promotion par matières.

Ces deux principes ne sont pas particuliers au Québec; ces mêmes principes ont été appliqués à peu près en même temps dans tous les pays occidentaux, mais ils ont été appliqués avec différentes intensités selon les pays et parfois selon les régions d'un même pays. Le Québec est probablement le pays francophone qui a été le plus loin dans sa réforme en tant que nation. Comme le fait remarquer le rapport COPEX, qui date de 1976, ce ne sont pas tous les enfants, qui ont pu profiter de cette réforme. Donc le système n'était pas encore idéal et ne permettait pas la réussite de la scolarisation universelle. Mais existe-t-il un système idéal?

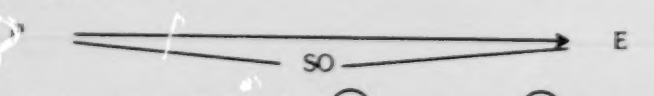
PARTIE I
L'ÉCOLE ET L'INTÉGRATION

1) Notion de l'école

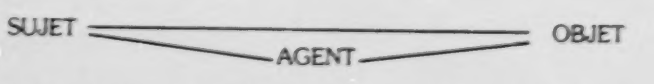
Réfléchissons un peu ensemble sur la notion de l'école pour mieux en appréhender les éléments.

Au début de la vie, il existe une personne et un environnement.

La finalité de P, c'est d'entrer en relation avec E, sinon c'est la mort. Il peut s'agir de la mort physique comme dans le cas d'un nouveau-né qu'on ne nourrirait pas ou qui serait incapable de se nourrir ou comme dans le cas célèbre raconté par l'auteur lui-même Fritz Zorn dans "Mars" qui est mort du cancer à 32 ans, dû à une éducation manquée selon ses propres mots, ou il peut s'agir d'une mort apparente comme le cas célèbre de l'enfant autistique Dibbs ou de l'adulte Mary Barnes. Cas qui tous les deux ont été racontés dans la littérature. Avant l'école, cette relation est favorisée, amenée par, disons un terme fort général, la société. Ainsi le modèle devient:



À l'école, le même modèle s'applique. P devient le sujet, E devient l'objet d'apprentissage et SO devient l'agent d'apprentissage dont le maître fait partie.



Quand le sujet apprend de lui-même, nous parlerons d'autodidaxie! Quand le sujet apprend à l'aide d'un agent, on parlera d'altérodidaxie ou tout simplement de didactique. Nous reviendrons sur ces éléments.

2) Intégration ——— Ségrégation

Le phénomène récent de l'intégration — phénomène qui a existé avant aujourd'hui toutefois — dépend de conditions socio-politiques comme tout phénomène éducatif. Au début des années 60, quand on se fit l'avocat de la ségrégation des enfants difficiles, c'était aussi pour des raisons socio-politiques avancées, en ce temps comme maintenant, par les éducateurs influents, les politiciens qui les écoutaient et des parents désireux d'offrir à leurs enfants la meilleure éducation possible.

Toutefois aujourd'hui on est mieux préparé pour parler de ce dont nous voulons instaurer. En effet, la ségrégation telle que nous l'avons pratiquée et malgré la promotion par matières n'a pas atteint ses objectifs éducatifs. Les statistiques sont éloquentes sur ce point. Au moment du rapport COPEX, le Québec était en train de battre des records d'inadaptation scolaire. Même si nos petits québécois ne sont pas plus fins que les enfants des autres pays, ils ne sont sûrement pas plus fous que les autres.

Pourquoi alors la classe d'attente, la classe spéciale, la classe de dénombrement flottant n'ont pas donné jusqu'ici tout le succès qu'on était en droit d'espérer?

Cela vient premièrement de la difficulté de se faire une idée de la notion du trouble d'apprentissage et deuxièmement de la responsabilité de celui à qui nous avons confié le soin de diagnostiquer le trouble.

Par exemple, je suis sûr de ne pas errer en disant que tous et chacun de nous avons, au cours de nos études, éprouvé des troubles et des difficultés d'apprentissage. Avons-nous été mis en classe spéciale? Avons-nous été classés dans un degré parallèle appelé du beau mot de cours désaccéléré? Je dirais que sans exception, nous avons surmonté nos échecs et que la seule conséquence que cela ait pu avoir sur nous, c'est que nous avons peut-être été obligé de modifier le cours de notre cheminement vocationnel.

À part nous, qui, à l'occasion, avons éprouvé des difficultés d'apprentissage et d'adaptation, il y a aussi les cas célèbres de Werner Van Braun, responsable du programme spatial américain et Albert Einstein, cancres de leur classe de math!

Tout cela pour nous amener à penser et à croire que les troubles d'apprentissage et d'adaptation ne sont peut-être en soi des troubles permanents qui exigent la ségrégation, qui elle risque de créer des troubles permanents au niveau de la perception de soi, entraînant par le fait même une décomposition du Moi personnel et social.

De plus, nous avons tous entendu un jour ou l'autre un spécialiste de l'éducation dire à des professeurs, "Cet enfant a besoin d'attention. Essayez de vous en occuper personnellement", et vous de penser, sinon de dire, "Qu'est-ce que je vais faire de mes vingt autres enfants?"

Cela reflète les deux approches les plus répandues par rapport aux enfants en difficultés d'apprentissage et d'adaptation: l'approche psychologique et l'approche pédagogique. Approches parfois conflictuelles. Je serais tenté de dire que la ségrégation est une approche psychologique et que l'intégration est une approche pédagogique. En ce sens que l'approche psychologique préconise le retrait et le petit nombre et l'approche pédagogique l'inclusion, le moyen et le grand nombre.

Nous sommes actuellement dans une phase d'approche pédagogique. Quand un enfant entre en maternelle, il a déjà ou il n'a pas un bon

bagage de connaissances, d'attitudes et d'habiletés diverses. Pour moi, la maternelle est le niveau le plus important du système scolaire. C'est l'année du diagnostic — pas nécessairement du testing à tour de bras —, même si les enfants aiment passer des tests — pas non plus le testing sélectif qu'on a tant décrié, mais le diagnostic — opéré par l'observation systématique des points faibles de l'enfant.

C'est là à mon avis un des changements essentiels à opérer à la maternelle. La socialisation est un facteur important de la maternelle, mais c'est un aspect qui arrive tout seul par le fait même du contexte.

Quand pourrions-nous nous apercevoir sans dommage pour l'enfant, qu'il peut survenir des problèmes d'apprentissage? C'est à la maternelle. Entre autres, pour apprendre à lire, il y a des préalables nécessaires dont le contact avec les livres de toute sorte; pour apprendre à compter, il y a des préalables dont les exercices de catégorisation. Ces expériences d'apprentissage ne sont pas à proprement parler scolaires, mais elles sont nécessaires à la scolarité, et il y en a bien d'autres.

Or si nous revenons à notre modèle du départ, nous avons vu que P doit entrer en relation avec E. C'est la finalité de l'homme sur terre. Or l'école fournit des E particuliers qu'on appelle O. La lecture, l'écriture, le calcul sont des objets d'apprentissage. Or si on a le pouvoir, la capacité de se rendre compte qu'à la maternelle un S n'est pas entré en contact avec un O comme les livres ou certains types de livres, il risque de développer des troubles d'apprentissage. Il est criminel et certainement anti-pédagogique de ne pas s'en occuper. Mais c'est là que toutes les philosophies pédagogiques entrent en jeu. Par exemple, une pédagogie dite organique ne voudra pas s'immiscer dans le Moi personnel de l'enfant. L'hypothèse de cette pédagogie est que l'enfant possède en lui les ressources nécessaires pour résoudre les difficultés de la vie.

Selon notre modèle, mais selon cette pédagogie, le S peut entrer en relation avec O par lui-même; il est un autodidacte. Or c'est là précisément l'erreur! Si, comme le veut cette pédagogie, nous sommes tous autodidactes — et cela est partiellement vrai — pourquoi y a-t-il au Québec 600,000 analphabètes, soit un adulte sur dix? (Dagenais, 1980) Pourquoi y a-t-il des troubles d'apprentissage? Parce qu'il y a une différence entre le Moi personnel et le Moi social! J'apprends effectivement des choses par moi-même, nous apprenons des choses par nous-mêmes, mais la société — que ce soit la famille, l'école, les organismes publics — nous imposent des choses à apprendre et habituellement ceux-ci se donnent la peine de nous les faire apprendre. L'école — puisqu'il s'agit d'elle — joue un rôle spécifique et particulier dans les apprentissages sociaux.

Dans certains cas avec certains enfants (habituellement les enfants sans problèmes) la pédagogie dite organique réussit; avec d'autres enfants, le professeur doit utiliser une toute autre pédagogie — une pédagogie d'intervention directe.

N'avez-vous pas entendu comme moi certains gens dire qu'il n'existe pas de bonnes méthodes d'apprendre à lire à ceux qui éprouvent des troubles d'apprentissage de lecture, mais que la méthode Forest-Ouimet (avec laquelle ceux de mon âge ont appris) est la moins mauvaise. Ce n'est pas la méthode en soi qui permet de mieux apprendre; c'est que la méthode Forest-Ouimet exige l'intervention directe du maître.

Aussi d'une façon générale un trouble d'apprentissage ne se traite pas par une approche dite organique, car une des caractéristiques des enfants avec troubles l.a. et des troubles g.a. c'est qu'ils ne trouvent pas en eux l'énergie pour régler leurs problèmes. Si on les laisse au niveau de leurs capacités, on ne leur rend pas service. Au contraire.

L'approche pédagogique auprès des enfants en difficulté d'apprentissage doit être directe. Il ne suffit pas d'intégrer les enfants dans une classe régulière pour qu'il y ait intégration; il faut que l'intégration soit active, préparée et soutenue.

PARTIE II
L'INTÉGRATION ET LES PROJETS

1) Notion de l'intégration

Nous pouvons dégager trois définitions de l'intégration scolaire:

> "l'intégration désigne le mouvement par lequel des handicapés passent des centres spécialisés aux commissions scolaires par la mise sur pied de classes spéciales et d'écoles spéciales dans le secteur public;
>
> l'intégration désigne plus particulièrement le mouvement par lequel les enfants handicapés sont placés dans des classes régulières;
>
> l'intégration est utilisée dans le sens de retour au milieu naturel de l'enfant; il y a donc eu ségrégation i.e. que l'enfant a été retiré de son milieu, placé en classes spéciales ou intégré dans une école régulière avec services spécialisés à portée de la main, et quand il est prêt, il réintègre son milieu." (MEQ, 1979, p. 14)

L'intégration scolaire peut aussi être définie comme le maintien de l'enfant dans son milieu naturel pour sa scolarisation (MEQ, 1978, p. 22). Ces définitions peuvent s'appliquer à plusieurs situations, modèles d'intégration scolaires différents. Le système en cascade (voir le schéma) proposé par le rapport COPEX (1976) et retenu par le MEQ comme modèle d'organisation, nous fournit une grille d'analyse utile pour identifier et classifier ces différentes situations d'intégration. Le système en cascade repose sur une philosophie de l'éducation axée sur le développement intégral de l'enfant dans le milieu le plus normal possible.

Dans le but de favoriser l'intégration scolaire et l'insertion sociale des élèves en difficulté, le MEQ a subventionné différents projets-pilote pour les années scolaires 1979-1980 et 1980-1981.

Il ressort de leur examen (Congrès C.Q.E.E. - U.M.O.S.E.A., 1979) que l'intégration scolaire peut se faire de plusieurs façons et atteindre des niveaux divers. Les projets peuvent viser la pré-intégration, l'intégration partielle ou totale dépendamment des capacités de développement de chaque enfant.

2) Le système en cascade

L'observation du système en cascade peut nous aider à mieux comprendre le concept de l'intégration scolaire tel que défini précédemment. Concrètement, l'intégration scolaire, appliquée à ce modèle, signifierait le passage d'un niveau inférieur du trapèze à un niveau supérieur, c'est-à-dire, le passage d'un niveau d'organisation relativement éloigné de la "normale" à un niveau d'organisation plus près de la "normale". Ceci nous permet d'identifier trois types d'intégration, à savoir:

a) *L'intégration au milieu familial*: Le passage du niveau 8 au niveau 7, i.e. le passage d'un niveau d'enseignement reçu dans un centre d'accueil ou hospitalier à un enseignement à domicile.

b) *L'intégration au milieu scolaire spécialisé*: Le passage du niveau 7 au niveau 6, i.e. le passage d'un enseignement à domicile à un enseignement dans une école spéciale.

c) *L'intégration au milieu scolaire régulier*: Le passage du niveau 6 aux niveaux 5, 4, 3, 2 ou 1; le passage du niveau 5 aux niveaux 4, 3, 2 ou 1; le passage du niveau 4 aux niveaux 3, 2 ou 1; le passage du niveau 3 aux niveaux 2 ou 1; le passage du niveau 2 au niveau 1. Aux niveaux 1, 2 et 3, nous parlons d'*intégration totale* car l'enfant en difficulté est placé dans une classe régulière. Son groupe de référence est la classe régulière. La différence entre les niveaux 1, 2 et 3 se situe au niveau des personnes ressources qui viennent en aide à l'enfant en difficulté ou à l'enseignant: au niveau 1, l'enseignant est le seul agent d'éducation à venir en aide à l'enfant; au niveau 2, l'enseignant peut recevoir de l'aide du service ressource; au niveau 3, l'enseignant et l'enfant en difficulté reçoivent de l'aide des services ressources. Aux niveaux 4 et 5, nous parlons d'*intégration partielle*. Au niveau 4, l'enfant a deux groupes de référence, soit la classe régulière et la classe ressource car il fait partie d'une classe régulière en même temps qu'il participe à une classe ressource. Au niveau 5, l'enfant en difficulté est intégré au milieu scolaire régulier par le biais des activités générales de l'école normale bien qu'il fasse partie d'une classe spéciale à l'intérieur de l'école régulière. Son groupe de référence est la classe spéciale et sa population de référence est l'école régulière.

À partir du système en cascade, nous avons dégagé les situations d'intégration possibles. Ce système ne constitue pas la seule façon de catégoriser les modèles d'intégration. Gisèle Gingrès (1980, p. 12), par exemple, à partir de l'analyse de plusieurs expériences d'intégration vécues dans les commissions scolaires de l'île de Montréal, regroupe

LE SYSTÈME EN CASCADE
Un modèle intégré d'organisation des mesures spéciales d'enseignement*
NIVEAU 1
Classe régulière avec l'enseignant régulier, premier responsable de la prévention, du dépistage, de l'évaluation et de la correction des difficultés mineures de l'élève
NIVEAU 2
Classe régulière avec service ressource à l'enseignant régulier
NIVEAU 3
Classe régulière avec service ressource à l'enseignant régulier et à l'enfant
NIVEAU 4
Classe régulière avec participation de l'enfant à une classe ressource
NIVEAU 5
Classe spéciale dans l'école régulière, avec participation aux activités générales de l'école
NIVEAU 6
NIVEAU 7
Enseignement à domicile
NIVEAU 8
Enseignement à l'intérieur d'un centre d'accueil ou d'un centre hospitalier
Éducation préventive
Éducation progressive
Revenir dans cette direction le plus rapidement possible

*Tiré de COPEX, 1976, p. 637, modèle adapté de B.R. Gearheart: **Organization and Administration of Educational Programs for Exceptional Children**. Springfield, Ill., Thomas, 1974, p. 242

l'ensemble de ces projets en un certain nombre de grands modèles d'intégration. Chacun de ces modèles cependant peut être reclassé à l'intérieur du système en cascade. Entre parenthèses, le niveau du système en cascade est indiqué.

1. Intégration complète au régulier avec classe ressource pour enfant (niveau 4)
2. Intégration complète avec aide au professeur régulier et à l'enfant et classe ressource (niveaux 3 et 4)
3. Intégration individuelle par étape de l'enfant au régulier, allant de partielle à presque totale (niveaux 3, 4 ou 5)
4. Intégration partielle au régulier à partir de certaines activités (niveaux 4 ou 5)
5. Jumelage d'une classe d'enfants du régulier avec classe d'enfants inadaptés dans 90% et plus des activités quotidiennes (niveaux 3 ou 4)
6. Intégration complète des enfants inadaptés dans différentes classes régulières, travail dans la classe de l'orthopédagogue ou redistribution des tâches et des enfants, diminution de ratio pour certains des professeurs du régulier (niveaux 1, 2 ou 3)

3) Les expériences d'intégration

Chacun de ces modèles regroupant plusieurs expériences d'intégration a été analysé à partir de six grands thèmes ou dimensions, à savoir:

1. Attitude vis-à-vis la marginalité (respect des différences individuelles, sens de la normalité. . .)
2. Le projet (élaboration, planification, évaluation)
3. Aspect psycho-pédagogique (pédagogie utilisée, travail d'équipe, enseignement individualisé, innovation pédagogique, sensibilisation à la psycho-pédagogie de l'inadapté, connaissance et évaluation soutenue de l'enfant, valorisation des enfants. . .)
4. Pouvoir (contrôle, autonomie des intervenants dans l'expérience)
5. Administration (contraintes, services et soutien)
6. La pratique quotidienne de l'intégration (activités, types d'enfants, croyance en sa possibilité, exigences minimales vis-à-vis les enfants pour permettre l'intégration, acceptation de l'enfant comme totalité (forces-faiblesses), nombre d'enfants impliqués. . .) (Gingras, 1980, p. 13)

Il ressort du rapport de Gisèle Gingras, qu'il y a un écart assez grand entre l'évaluation des projets d'intégration, telle que pondérée suivant la conception que s'en fait l'ensemble des intervenants dans ce projet, et l'évaluation des projets à partir des critères de l'intégration tels que conçus dans le rapport COPEX et réitérés globalement dans *l'École québécoise*. Autrement dit, si on compare la perception des intervenants et celle des intervieweurs (ces derniers ayant comme critères d'évaluation, la politique du MEQ et du COPEX) quant au degré de réussite des projets d'intégration, il y a un écart assez grand entre les deux.

Malgré les difficultés vécues dans certains projets, la majorité des intervenants s'entendent pour dire que leur projet est réussi. Selon Gisèle Gingras, cette évaluation par les intervenants de la réussite de leur projet malgré toutes les difficultés vécues est étroitement reliée à la représentation qu'ils se font de l'intégration, au sens qu'ils lui donnent. 67% des intervenants considèrent leur expérience d'intégration réussie quand l'enfant suit la moyenne des autres enfants et/ou ne dérange plus dans la classe. 33% seulement des intervenants ont relevé comme critère prédominant de réussite que l'enfant s'améliore selon ses possibilités et ses limites (Gingras, 1980, p. 24).

Les deux modèles où il y a eu un accord beaucoup plus grand entre les intervenants et les intervieweurs sont les modèles 5 et 6 (jumelage, intégration complète équipe ortho-régulier). Les éléments qui distinguent nettement les deux modèles "réussis" des quatre autres modèles sont les suivants : les attitudes vis-à-vis la marginalité, le pouvoir des intervenants dans la planification du projet et sa réalisation, la pratique pédagogique et la conception de l'intégration (Gingras, 1980, p. 29).

Même si les deux modèles jugés conjointement comme réussis répondent davantage aux objectifs de l'intégration, il y a place pour des améliorations afin d'augmenter l'efficacité et la motivation des participants.

Chacun des modèles présentent malgré tout des aspects positifs et négatifs. Comme ce serait trop long à énumérer ici, nous préférons mentionner seulement les améliorations à apporter à l'ensemble des modèles sans préciser si ces améliorations se rattachent davantage à tel ou tel modèle. Notre but est davantage de préciser les conditions à mettre en place dans le milieu pour que l'expérience d'intégration soit vraiment une réussite et répondent aux critères du MEQ et de COPEX. Voici donc ces conditions de succès:

1. sensibiliser les intervenants du régulier aux problèmes des enfants à intégrer avant de mettre en marche un projet
2. informer et sensibiliser davantage les professeurs du régulier sur le sens et les objectifs des politiques d'intégration
3. sensibiliser les intervenants du régulier susceptibles d'être impliqués dans un projet d'intégration sur la marginalité, la normalité, l'adaptation, l'évaluation, la sélection et la démocratisation scolaire
4. travailler sur les attitudes, les préjugés des professeurs du régulier face à l'enfant inadapté
5. donner une plus grande autonomie et une plus grande liberté aux professeurs du régulier d'accepter ou non le projet d'intégration que l'on prépare
6. faire participer davantage les professeurs du régulier à la préparation des projets d'intégration
7. apporter un plus grand soutien moral et matériel au projet d'intégration afin de favoriser une plus grande intégration de ces enfants dans toute l'école et une plus grande cohérence et continuité dans les

exigences académiques et socio-scolaires que l'on fait vivre à ces enfants

8. après sensibilisation, il y aurait lieu de réduire le pouvoir que les enseignants possèdent dans les discussions (marchandage d'enfants) avec les spécialistes de l'inadaptation
9. inciter certains enseignants à se ressourcer au plan pédagogique afin d'acquérir une certaine souplesse dans leur enseignement et afin qu'ils possèdent les outils nécessaires pour enseigner à des enfants en difficulté (innovations pédagogiques, enseignement individualisé, méthodes modernes d'enseignement. . .)
10. diminuer le ratio, au début de l'année, de plusieurs classes régulières susceptibles de recevoir des enfants en difficulté en cours d'année
11. prévoir dans l'horaire des professeurs du régulier un temps suffisant pour préparer avec l'orthopédagogue la venue de nouveaux enfants dans leur classe et pour planifier les activités adaptées à leur intégration
12. soutien moral et matériel du principal et du reste de l'école face à l'enseignant du régulier ayant des enfants en difficulté dans la classe
13. assurer une plus grande cohérence entre les différentes activités psycho-pédagogiques proposées à l'enfant
14. envisager des ateliers de sensibilisation sur la conception du progrès et de la réussite chez l'enfant aussi bien auprès du personnel non impliqué dans l'école qu'auprès des intervenants, si l'on veut véritablement motiver l'enseignant impliqué dans ces projets et favoriser la valorisation autant des enfants intégrés que des enseignants au régulier
15. améliorer les contraintes administratives (ratio, temps pour se perfectionner, pour échanger. . .)
16. favoriser le travail en équipe entre le spécialiste et l'enseignant
17. etc.

(Gingras, 1980)

Un certain nombre de conditions doivent donc être respectées pour qu'une expérience d'intégration soit réussie. C'est difficile actuellement, de porter un jugement sur l'état de l'intégration scolaire au Québec puisque les politiques du MEQ en ce sens sont encore trop récentes et que les différentes expériences d'intégration scolaire qui sont tentées dans diverses commissions scolaires en sont encore à leur début. Il semble bien, d'après le rapport de Gisèle Gingras, que le concept d'intégration tel que défini dans les politiques du MEQ n'ait pas encore été assimilé par l'ensemble des éducateurs, en partie parce que ces derniers n'ont pas été suffisamment sensibilisés et préparés. Les membres du comité de coordination des services de l'adaptation, du Conseil de l'île de Montréal, abondent dans le même sens. En effet, suite à une demande de l'AQETA auprès du Conseil de l'île de Montréal pour la production d'un rapport sur l'état du "mainstreaming au Québec" qui

serait soumis au congrès de l'AQETA de mars 1981, les membres du Comité de coordination des services de l'adaptation scolaire répondent qu'il y aurait peu de choses à dire sur ce mode fonctionnel puisque la politique en ce sens est trop récente. Ils suggèrent plutôt qu'on approfondisse, à ce congrès, le concept lui-même d'un vrai "main-streaming" et qu'on analyse les exigences nombreuses de la mise en place d'un tel système. Selon eux, "il est certain qu'au Québec on fait des choses inorthodoxes en regard de l'intégration et qu'il vaudrait mieux alerter les gens sur la prudence à avoir en ce domaine avant d'agir" (tiré du compte-rendu de la réunion du 18 août 1980 du Comité de coordination des services de l'adaptation scolaire, Conseil de l'île de Montréal).

RÉSUMÉ ET CONCLUSIONS

Dans tout projet d'intégration nous devrions tenir compte des différentes composantes de la situation d'intégration dont nous avons parlé précédemment, c'est-à-dire: 1) l'expérience d'intégration comme telle: à quel niveau de la cascade se situe-t-elle, qui sont les intervenants en présence, quel est ou quels sont le ou les groupes de référence de l'enfant en difficulté?; 2) la qualité des conditions mises en place pour l'expérience d'intégration: quels sont les aspects positifs et négatifs dans le milieu scolaire face à l'expérience d'intégration, quelles conditions faudrait-il mettre en place pour que l'expérience soit une réussite?; 3) Au Québec, il se mène actuellement beaucoup de projets d'intégration. Il est trop tôt pour le théoricien ou le praticien de tirer des conclusions significatives et généralisables. Mais il faut se rappeler les nombreuses conditions d'implantation d'un projet. Une intégration ne s'improvise pas; elle ne doit pas durer le temps que dure le projet; elle est une philosophie, un mode d'être et de devenir pédagogique, et toute l'école doit participer à ce phénomène, même s'il ne s'agit que d'un seul enfant à intégrer.

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Huguette Caglar, Ph.D.

LES FACTEURS DE PERCEPTION DE SOI ET DE PERCEPTION PAR AUTRUI DANS LE PROCESSUS D'INTÉGRATION SCOLAIRE

"Ce qu'il fallait faire, c'était reconnaître clairement ce qui devait être reconnu. Chasser enfin les ombres inutiles. . . parce que la peste ne s'imaginait pas ou s'imaginait faussement."

ALBERT CAMUS (La Peste)

Toute personne oeuvrant dans le domaine de l'enfance inadaptée ne peut que souscrire à la philosophie et adhérer aux objectifs définis par les tenants de l'intégration des enfants handicapés au cycle normal. Qui ne souhaiterait voir un enfant souffrant d'un handicap (intellectuel, scolaire, physique, sensoriel ou psychique) fréquenter une classe régulière pour son plus grand bénéfice et celui des élèves de cette classe? Car, c'est là, le principe fondamental de l'intégration qui devrait permettre à l'enfant inadapté d'actualiser et de développer au maximum toutes ses potentialités au contact des élèves du cycle normal qui, en retour, feraient l'apprentissage des différences individuelles et de la diversité enrichissante des expériences. Comme on le voit des mobiles fort généreux sous-tendent cette politique. . . les mêmes furent à l'origine de l'enseignement spécial fondé, lui aussi, sur le droit de tout enfant à l'éducation optimale. Ce mouvement de flux et de reflux vis-à-vis de l'enfance inadaptée mériterait à lui seul une analyse approfondie.

Nous étudierons l'un de ses aspects: la perception de l'enfant handicapé par l'enseignant, par les élèves et par lui-même, pour ensuite analyser l'incidence de ces phénomènes de perception différentielle sur le processus d'intégration scolaire.

L'enfant handicapé vu par les enseignants et par les élèves

Le regard porté sur l'Autre n'est jamais neutre: ici, il souligne une potentialité positive; là, il s'attarde sur un manque, sur un déficit, projetant un imaginaire de vie ou de mort.

Le psychologue travaillant en milieu scolaire sait combien la perception de l'élève par les enseignants et par les pairs est en relation directe avec les résultats scolaires. À égalité d'âge, d'intelligence, de conditions pédagogiques et de milieu social, les jugements portés par les professeurs sur les élèves mal classés sont nettement plus défavorables que ceux portés sur les élèves bien classés tant pour les caractéristiques intellectuelles qu'extra-intellectuelles comme l'intelligence, l'attention, les qualités de mobilisation, le contrôle de soi, la maturité affective, la confiance en soi, la sensibilité. Même les caractéristiques impliquent un jugement de valeur: la conduite de l'enfant, la confiance qui peut lui être accordée, la politesse, la camaraderie sont perçues sous un jour plus défavorable. Enfin, des différences, toujours en défaveur des "mauvais" élèves, sont également relevées dans l'affection que ressent l'enseignant pour ces élèves (M. Gilly, 1968). Ce n'est donc pas sans inquiétude que l'on s'interroge sur la perception de l'enfant qu'un handicap, de quelle que nature qu'il soit, a écarté du cycle normal. En quoi est-il perçu différemment? Question fondamentale, car la possibilité et la réussite de l'intégration reposent, en grande partie, sur la qualité de cette perception.

Les travaux de Thomas S. Parish et al. (1978) montrent que les attitudes adoptées vis-à-vis des enfants handicapés sont significativement plus négatives que celles manifestées à l'égard des enfants normaux. D'après les auteurs, l'importance des attitudes négatives serait directement liée à la nature du handicap: les handicapés physiques seraient les mieux acceptés, suivis par les enfants présentant des troubles d'apprentissage, les enfants émotionnellement perturbés étant les plus rejetés. Elaine Yaffe (1979) relatant des expériences d'intégration dans des classes régulières à Colorado Springs d'enfants souffrant de surdité ou d'insuffisance visuelle sévère, confirme ces résultats. Lorsque le matériel et l'organisation de la classe sont adaptés aux besoins de ces enfants, professeur et élèves les acceptent facilement et les aident, s'enrichissant mutuellement du partage de leurs expériences en classe et dans la cour de récréation. Par contre, les perturbés affectifs graves et les psychotiques suscitent des sentiments d'ambivalence, de peur, de rejet.

À partir des estimations portées par leurs éducateurs et leurs camarades sur le travail scolaire, l'efficience psychomotrice, les caractéristiques pathologiques (nervosité, peur, etc.) et non pathologiques (beauté, intel-

ligence, etc.) d'enfants présentant un trouble instrumental prévalent, de psychotiques, de névrotiques et de caractériels fréquentant un externat médico-pédagogique, R. Cahn (1969) conclut que le sujet dont les relations au monde sont les plus troublées est celui qui sera l'objet des jugements les plus tranchés, des distorsions les plus fortes. Ainsi, les psychotiques sont sévèrement jugés par leurs camarades qui les perçoivent mauvais élèves, handicapés sur le plan moteur et, fait rare chez les enfants, certains d'entre eux relèvent la présence de caractères pathologiques. Malgré cette image somme toute négative, l'enfant psychotique n'est pas l'objet d'un rejet massif. On peut s'interroger sur la signification de la présence moyenne du psychotique dans le sociogramme: doit-on attribuer cette absence de rejet à la fascination qu'exerce le psychotique ou à la culpabilité qu'engendrerait un tel rejet? Mais ce sont surtout les estimations des éducateurs qui relèvent à travers leurs distorsions l'ambivalence ressentie face au psychotique — mauvais objet: on relève à côté d'une surestimation du travail scolaire (aucune différence n'est perçue par l'éducateur entre le rendement scolaire du psychotique et celui des autres enfants), une fréquence maximale dans la zone négative pour les caractéristiques non pathologiques (beauté, intelligence, etc.). Pour R. Cahn, ces distorsions ne sont qu'une manifestation (contre-attitude, contre-transfert, mécanismes de défense, etc.) de l'angoisse suscitée par le contact d'enfants pathologiques, peut-être même pathogènes. Quant aux enfants présentant une structure caractérielle, ils sont jugés par leurs camarades positivement pour leur travail scolaire et l'efficience motrice, mais se voient attribuer, eux aussi, des caractéristiques pathologiques. Les estimations des éducateurs rejoignent ces jugements et les accentuent: si ces enfants sont considérés comme de bons élèves, ils sont aussi perçus comme les sujets les plus pathologiques. Incapables de vivre leurs conflits autrement que sur un mode agi, ils deviennent rapidement insupportables pour toute l'institution.

Si tel est le vécu des éducateurs vis-à-vis du psychotique et du caractériel alors que, ne l'oublions pas, ils ont choisi de travailler avec ces sujets (ici se pose le problème des motivations inconscientes au choix de la profession), il convient de s'interroger sur les réactions que ces enfants ne manqueront pas de faire naître chez des professeurs qui, eux, n'ont pas choisi de leur enseigner. . . ou ne désirent pas le faire.

Les expériences d'intégration des déficients mentaux éducables dans des classes régulières sont assez nombreuses. Malheureusement, les résultats sont plutôt pessimistes. Placé dans une classe fréquentée par des enfants normaux, le déficient intellectuel moyen est objet de rejet: aux tests socio-métriques, il obtient le statut social le plus bas (Gottlieb, J. et Budoff, M., 1972). L'intensité du rejet est proportionnelle à la gravité de l'insuffisance intellectuelle: Jordan (1960) constate que les débiles mentaux les mieux acceptés sont ceux qui présentent les quotients intellectuels les plus élevés. Dans les situations de jeux libres, les enfants normaux délaissent les débiles et entreprennent, de façon nettement préférentielle, des activités sociales avec les autres enfants (Porter et al., 1978).

De surcroît, le rejet augmente avec la fréquence des interactions: plus les enfants normaux ont de contacts avec les débiles mentaux, moins ils les jugent socialement acceptables (Kehle et Guidubaldi, 1978). L'étude de Johnson (1950) sur 25 débiles mentaux mêlés aux 688 enfants des 25 classes d'une école primaire montre qu'au sociogramme les déficients sont les moins choisis et surtout beaucoup plus fréquemment rejetés. Les raisons invoquées par les élèves invités à expliquer ce rejet ne concernent ni la débilité, ni la pauvreté des résultats scolaires. Ce sont essentiellement les conduites hors de la classe qui apparaissent insupportables. Le déficient est perçu comme un enfant brutal, menteur, tricheur, "rapporteur", grossier, sale. Pour Johnson, il serait illusoire de croire que le placement des débiles dans des classes régulières éviterait la ségrégation: elle existe déjà, de fait. Les travaux de Baldwin (1958) qui portent à la fois sur les perceptions des professeurs et des élèves confirment les conclusions de Johnson: placés dans un cycle normal, les débiles mentaux sont rejetés: professeurs et élèves leur attribuent un nombre beaucoup plus élevé de caractéristiques indésirables qu'aux autres élèves.

L'assistance dont peuvent bénéficier les déficients intellectuels placés dans une classe régulière n'améliore pas leur statut social: au sociogramme, les scores qu'ils obtiennent ne sont pas plus élevés que ceux de leurs camarades débiles privés de cette aide supplémentaire (Iano et al., 1974). Il semblerait aussi que la durée du séjour dans la classe régulière n'ait pas d'incidence sur la position sociométrique du déficient intellectuel qui reste inexorablement rejeté. Professeurs et élèves du cycle normal fondent leurs jugements sur les informations surgies dès les premières impressions et ne les modifient plus (Kleck et al., 1974). La résistance au changement est singulièrement forte. Le premier regard porté sur l'enfant débile le condamne et l'enferme dans son ghetto.

Que conclure au terme de l'exposé de ces quelques recherches sur les perceptions de l'enfant handicapé par ses professeurs et ses pairs? On ne peut qu'être frappé par la constance de nos mentalités rejetantes. La projection de notre Idéal du Moi sur l'élève, la force des stéréotypes sociaux rattachés à la réussite et à l'échec scolaires infléchissent négativement l'image que nous nous faisons de l'élève en difficulté d'apprentissage. Quant à l'enfant autistique, caractériel ou débile, il nous interpelle au plus profond de nous-même, dans la partie la plus archaïque de notre personne. Alors, notre propre peur de la folie, du manque, de la mort cherche à s'apaiser par la proclamation de la différence de l'autre. Ces désirs, ces sentiments qui nous appartiennent et que nous refusons, nous allons les projeter sur l'autre. Pris dans ce jeu de miroirs que devient l'enfant "réel" face à cet enfant "perçu"? Il ne peut que modeler sa propre image sur celle que nous lui reflétons, la construire à partir des attitudes et des comportements qu'elle a suscités.

La perception de l'enfant handicapé par lui-même

Les résultats de l'étude de Gilly, déjà citée, montrent nettement l'empreinte du statut scolaire sur la perception que l'enfant a de lui-même. La description que les bons élèves font d'eux-mêmes est nettement plus flatteuse que celle des mauvais élèves qui ont tendance à se juger inférieur ou égal. D'autre part, l'image des bons élèves est fidèle, à quelques exceptions près, au portrait tracé par leurs mères et leur professeur. Si la perception que les élèves mal classés ont d'eux-mêmes est plutôt négative, ils refusent néanmoins de se juger différents des autres pour un grand nombre de caractéristiques sociales et affectives pour lesquelles ils sont perçus inférieurs aux "bons" élèves par les adultes et leurs camarades "bien classés".

La représentation de soi des enfants présentant des troubles graves des apprentissages scolaires (T.G.A.) est encore plus marquée par les réactions du milieu familial et du milieu scolaire à leur échec. Le T.G.A. de 9 ans placé dans une classe spéciale se dévalorise massivement. Il s'identifie trop facilement à un élève peu doué, se juge peu intelligent, mauvais élève, peu appliqué, sans autonomie. Cependant, lorsqu'il doit s'auto-évaluer en faisant appel à des critères plus objectifs (force physique, adresse manuelle, dynamisme. . .), il porte sur lui-même un jugement plus favorable. Dans la comparaison avec ses pairs, le T.G.A. de 9 ans s'attribue pour l'intelligence, la réussite scolaire, l'attention, des scores plus élevés que ceux que l'élève de classe régulière ose s'octroyer. Ce renversement dans sa manière de s'auto-évaluer est certainement dû au cadre protégé que lui offre la classe spéciale, à l'attitude de support et de revalorisation constante témoignée par le professeur (Caglar, 1980). Le T.G.A. de 11 ans après deux années de fréquentation d'une classe spéciale a pu acquérir une image de soi positive. Il garde néanmoins une perception objective de ses difficultés scolaires, sans toutefois les imputer à un manque d'intelligence (Caglar, 1980). Les "effets déréalisants" de la classe spéciale signalée par R. Perron ne sembleraient pas se produire, ici. La fréquentation d'une classe spéciale par l'élève présentant des troubles graves d'apprentissage ne paraît pas engendrer d'hypervalorisation progressive, éventuel obstacle à une bonne insertion sociale et professionnelle. La situation est différente pour les débiles mentaux. En effet, l'étude de Perron (1969) montre, de façon très claire, que les déficients intellectuels restés dans le cycle normal, comparés aux déficients pris en charge par l'enseignement spécial, présentent aussi une image d'eux-mêmes très dévalorisée, dominée par l'échec scolaire. Par contre, dans la comparaison avec les enfants normaux, ces débiles mentaux, élèves de classe spéciale, surestiment leurs capacités, survalorisation qui pourrait rendre plus difficile leur intégration scolaire future.

En conclusion, il paraît évident que le statut scolaire, les échecs, certaines réactions et attitudes de la famille, des enseignants et des pairs ont pesé, lourdement, sur la représentation de soi du "mauvais élève", de l'écolier présentant des troubles graves des apprentissages scolaires et du débile mental, alimentant sans cesse un sentiment d'incapacité,

d'incomplétude qui risque d'être projeté sur d'autres situations, sur les lieux, sur les personnes. Que faudrait-il entreprendre pour enrayer l'effet de généralisation de la non-réussite scolaire? Que faudrait-il faire pour mettre en échec le fantasme de mort qui est à l'oeuvre dans le rejet de tout handicapé, physique, mental ou psychique? Que faudrait-il prévoir, instituer pour qu'un accueil authentique leur soit réservé?

L'intégration: savoir faire ou savoir être?

Sur la base des résultats de ces recherches et suite aux expériences d'intégration réalisées ces dernières années, plusieurs recommandations ou programmes ont été proposés.

Certains auteurs pensent qu'une action auprès des enfants handicapés devrait être entreprise avant de les intégrer. Gottlieb et al. (1972) suggèrent de modifier les comportements inadaptés des débiles mentaux avant leur placement dans les classes régulières afin de diminuer l'intensité du rejet. Mais étant donné la relation acceptation-compétences académiques, la loi resterait: "pas rejeté, non accepté". D'autres spécialistes ont surtout insisté sur les conditions matérielles ou pédagogiques. D'après E. Yatte, l'expérience des professeurs de Colorado Springs montre que l'intégration des enfants handicapés exige certaines conditions: l'assistance d'un professeur spécialisé, la préparation indispensable des élèves à la venue parmi eux d'un enfant handicapé; surtout, un nombre restreint de ces élèves qui devraient présenter le même handicap; enfin, un temps limité et variable de leur présence dans la classe (dix minutes à une demie-journée selon les cas). L'architecture semblerait aussi jouer un rôle non négligeable. Dans les écoles à aires ouvertes, les débiles mentaux sont plus fréquemment rejetés que dans les écoles à aires fermées (dans les deux types d'écoles, le déficient est toujours plus significativement rejeté que l'écolier normal) (Gottlieb et Budoff, 1973). La nécessité d'une formation de qualité pour le personnel enseignant tant pour la théorie que pour la pratique qui devrait inclure, obligatoirement, l'expérience avec les différents types d'enfants inadaptés, l'entraînement au travail en équipe pluridisciplinaire, est très souvent soulignée (Miesels, 1977; McLoughlin et Kershmann, 1979).

Sans sous-estimer l'importance de ces recommandations, nous les jugeons insuffisantes.

Les causes structurales ne sont pas le véritable obstacle à l'intégration car elles peuvent être éliminées de façon relativement facile. Ce sont les causes socio-culturelles enfouies dans notre inconscient qui constituent le véritable obstacle, ce sont tous les préjugés acquis, très tôt, vis-à-vis de celui qui est différent de nous (Voir à ce sujet l'étude de D. Zimmermann sur les processus d'attraction-répulsion des enseignants à l'égard des élèves en fonction de l'origine sociale de ces derniers ou de leur statut d'immigré. Revue française de pédagogie, 1978, no 44, 46-70). Aussi, plus que le savoir, le savoir-faire, le savoir-être constitue la base fondamentale de l'intégration.

Un autre regard. . .

C'est l'image que l'enseignant se fait de l'enfant handicapé qui est perçue, puis décodée par l'enfant pour ensuite déterminer son appétence relationnelle. C'est donc par la reprise de la relation affective nouée entre l'handicapé et l'enseignant que ces enfants qui, trop souvent, ont fait l'expérience du déplaisir relationnel pourront reprendre confiance en eux-mêmes et en autrui.

Ce qu'il faut d'abord tenter, cest de reconnaître l'enfant handicapé, c'est-à-dire percevoir l'enfant "réel". Cette perception suppose la capacité de "se mettre à la place" de l'enfant handicapé pour saisir son vécu, tout en respectant la distance nécessaire afin d'éviter attitude fusionnelle, aliénation réciproque; la capacité de supporter les silences, les agressivités, les désirs conscients et inconscients de l'enfant.

Une autre écoute. . . ou le dialogue à quatre voix

Pour y parvenir, l'enseignant doit "épurer" sa perception de l'enfant handicapé. En d'autres termes, il doit prendre conscience des sentiments (de peur, de rejet, de pitié. . .), des réactions affectives que cet enfant éveille en lui et qu'il peut refouler ou projeter au risque d'altérer la relation éducative. Car, au contact de cet enfant, il revit par transfert la partie de sa personne restée immature. Pour que l'enseignant puisse supporter sans insécurité cette écoute de lui-même et de l'enfant, au niveau conscient et inconscient, pour tout ce qui se dit ou ne s'exprime pas, pour qu'une prise de conscience des mécanismes de projection, de défense, des phénomènes de transfert et de contre-transfert puisse se faire, une formation est nécessaire: celle de notre personne. "Avant d'aller vers l'enfant, il faut descendre en soi-même" (G. Mauco). Cette formation pourrait se faire sous des formes diverses, complémentaires: séminaires, stages en institutions spécialisées, groupes libres de discussion animés par un spécialiste formé à l'écoute de l'inconscient, jeux de rôle, psychodrame. . . C'est à cette condition que l'intégration atteindra sa pleine signification, que pourront s'exercer *le droit à la différence, le devoir de tolérance.*

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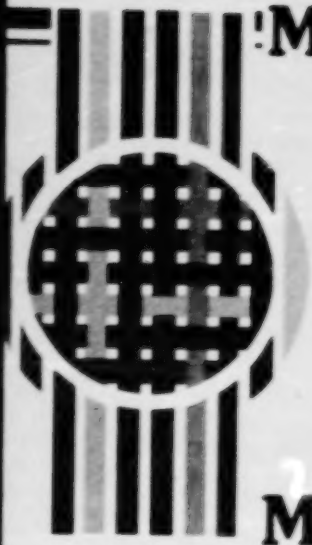

MAINSTREAMING

MAINSTREAMING IN ACTION: A MODEL

Albert Wener, Ph.D.
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MAINSTREAMING IN ACTION: A MODEL

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QUEBEC ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDREN WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES

Volume VI

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INTRODUCTION

"A program of mainstreaming . . . requires a long list of things to be done, and . . . one may say that it is impossible" (Cruickshank, Volume III)

Any collection of writings on mainstreaming, if it is to be considered both valid and useful, must include a practical response to this charge that mainstreaming is perhaps "impossible". For it is seen as such a comprehensive and complex philosophy that it can (if poorly implemented) harm more children than it helps. At the very least, it involves such a long list of difficult "things to be done", that we urgently need to hear from those who have tried it.

We need to know in practical, everyday detail, where they started, what priorities and procedures they established, what problems they faced and how they handled them, what measure of success they achieved — in other words, did it "work" or not, is it really "possible"?

This paper is the record of one such first-hand experience. It elaborates carefully on every aspect of a Mainstreaming Action Plan which has been underway for five years in the English sector of the Baldwin Cartier School Commission in suburban Montreal. It analyses from the ground up the exact methods used. It describes the historical context, government norms, planning, policy and committee stages, the vital Feasibility Study and the Action Plan that developed from it; the in-service programs and pilot projects that were set up; the sensitizing of all levels of the education community; the re-allocation of funds; the necessary changing of roles and attitudes as well as of curriculum, testing and individual programs. It includes an assessment of the program's strengths and weaknesses, and an outline of the work that still remains to be done.

The authors, who are themselves amongst the initiators of the program, are intensely aware of the demanding nature of the changes that a policy of mainstreaming imposes on a community. At the same time, they demonstrate how careful planning, continual communication and delicate adjustments at many stages can carry the process forward, so that more and more students do find a place in the mainstream of life.

This paper is extremely useful in that it describes in a comprehensive and organized written form what many school communities are experiencing, or contemplating, without having available sufficient, relevant, Canadian data. We are indebted to the commissioners, administrators, consultants and teachers of the Baldwin Cartier School Commission for this sharing of their experiences. As a program model, from those who have tried it, it will prove invaluable to others.

Karin David
Editor, Mainstreaming Series
GEMS

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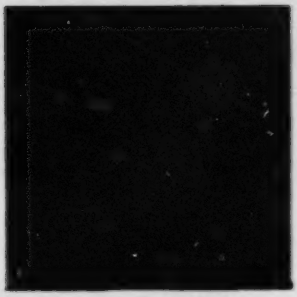


Rosemary O'Shaughnessy

PREFACE

The purpose of this article is to describe the development of a systematic plan of change and how the support of school commissioners and senior administrators gave strength and weight to its implementation. The plan was designed to facilitate the mainstreaming of students with special needs. The coordinated and planned action of all — teachers, resources personnel and administrators — reflects its systematic nature.

To describe the context in which this development occurred, some background about the evolution of special education services in general and locally will be outlined briefly. A more detailed description of the sequence of events in the process of change, including the definition of mainstreaming used, will follow. Finally, some general principles that might be useful in the implementation of similar programs will be reviewed.

At the outset, a few points require clarification. First, a visitor to the schools might not find a great deal that is unique in terms of the specific services that are offered. It is rather the school commission *Feasibility Study Action Plan* for the organization, development and delivery of Special Education services which may be of interest.

Second, there are many alternatives or variations on the theme of what is presented here. Successful educational programs can only be developed in terms of specific needs and resources; differences between schools and school commissions will probably result in programs that are somewhat different. In fact, la Commission Scolaire Baldwin-Cartier is a case in point. Serving the Catholic school population in Montreal's suburban West Island, Baldwin-Cartier has one director-general and one set of school commissioners. Educational services, however, are clearly divided into two sections: one for English-language instruction and one for French. The sections have several significant differences. Some are due to the different training and experience of the personnel available to teach. Some are due to the kinds of community resources with which the two language groups are associated. However, while both

sections hold a common philosophy with regard to special education, each has developed its services in a manner that is uniquely fitted to its own particular needs and resources.

This article will focus on the experience of the English section of La Commission Scolaire Baldwin-Cartier.

Third, the implementation of the plan is still very much "in progress". Results to date indicate the following:

There have been some shifts in the nature of the special-needs students in the schools as well as in the services available to them. Children with severe learning and behavioural problems spend more time in regular classrooms and schools than had been the case in the past. Some architectural accommodation and improved public relations have seen the integration of more children with physical handicaps. Cooperative working relationships among classroom teachers, special educators, administrators and resource personnel have done much to eliminate the traditional dividing lines between "regular" and "special".

Procedurally, "waiting list times" have been eliminated and certain administrative functions, such as the documentation of eligibility for service, have been made less onerous.

In the curriculum areas, learning objectives and criterion-referenced tests in mathematics and language arts are in the final stages of implementation and acceptance. Similar developments are taking place in the areas of social and self-help skills.

The results of surveys, interviews and observations in the schools indicate that the "mainstreaming program" has been more widely accepted by educators who, for the most part, feel confident in their ability to implement it.

Fourth, the progress to date has to be appreciated through realistic rather than "rose-coloured" glasses. Not every school nor every educator moves at the same pace; nor should they be expected to do so. All of the development programs to be described in this article have been designed for implementation on a school-by-school, almost person-by-person basis. The trick has been to orchestrate a respect for individual differences within the context of a commission-wide set of policies and procedures.

While a good deal of the groundwork has been done, there are still a number of issues which require attention. These include: sensitization of students and their families to the changes that mainstreaming brings about, community liaison and development of working relationships with other resources, mechanisms designed to maintain the changes that have and will occur, and procedures for the on-going evaluation of the services.

Albert Wener
Rosemary O'Shaughnessy
Montreal, January 1981

BACKGROUND

The ideas of Mainstreaming and Normalization did not occur by accident. In fact, there is a long history to the treatment of the handicapped which precedes it. Prior to the middle of the nineteenth century, it was common to perceive individuals with handicaps as somewhat less than human and to separate them from the mainstream of society. The latter half of the century saw a growing sensitivity to handicaps as evidenced by pioneering programs directed to those who had difficulty coping with the demands of society. This process was accelerated during the period of the world wars with the needs for selectivity in military service. Also, the demands for physical, social and emotional rehabilitation resulting from the battlefield prompted a rapid development in knowledge about, and service to, persons with handicaps. It was not until the middle of the twentieth century that human rights activists, scientific investigators and human service personnel directed their energies towards advancing the cause of the handicapped. North Americans in the sixties and seventies have seen judicial decisions, legislation and program development marking a radical change in the approach to those with handicaps; good will and volunteerism have been strengthened by laws and regulations. These, combined with more careful scientific, investigation have permitted the possibility of normalization for all members of society.

Quebec

The experience in Québec has been particularly exciting. From the inception of publicly funded special education programs in 1961, it has been estimated that the number of students receiving these services has increased by more than twelve times the original number (Gouvernement du Québec, Rapport COPEX 1976). By the early nineteen-seventies, the Ministry of Education had become aware of the need for an evaluation of its programs for students with handicaps. As a result, the Comité provincial de l'enfance inadaptée (COPEX committee) was commissioned. Its recommendations combined the experience of developments throughout North America with the realities of Québec and included a commitment to the concept of normalization with suggestions for changes in the orientation, organization and delivery of services. At the Ministry level, the process continued through a period of consultation, i.e. the "Green Paper", and an action plan, the White Paper (L'école québécoise). This direction is consistent with legislated changes made in Québec in its Child Protection Act (Bill 24) and the Rights for the Handicapped Act (Bill 9). In this way, our society is being developed in a way that attends to the rights of the disabled as well as those of the able.

La Commission Scolaire Baldwin-Cartier (English sector)

The initial development of special education services followed a familiar pattern. Educable mentally retarded children were assigned to auxiliary

classes. These were located in a regular school but both the program and the students were quite separate from the rest. By the end of the sixties, it became apparent that there were children who, despite serious academic retardation, were not mentally retarded; children who were not "making it" in the regular classroom but were also not candidates for the auxiliary class. The consensus of some of the parents and school personnel was that an alternative needed to be found. Therefore, the McGill-Montreal Children's Hospital Learning Center was consulted. Their influence in the development of a special education philosophy and plans for service delivery was considerable. For example, a free-flow program was established for learning disabled children in every school with the Learning Center providing training and on-going support. Course work leading to a diploma in special education, available locally through the cooperation of McGill University's Faculty of Education, became another vehicle for professional development.

By the early seventies, a clear philosophy and direction for special education services had developed. The concept of "preparation for integration" was first enunciated in 1972 when the terminology chosen to designate the services available was that of "Preparatory Program".

In the course of time, the "Prep program", as it came to be known, began to encounter some major challenges to its basic philosophy. The way in which support services developed, as well as space considerations within the schools, had led to the centralization of resource personnel in an administrative building. Most of the students with serious needs had been re-grouped in regular schools designated as special education centers. Children with ambulatory difficulties were still going to special schools even though only relatively minor changes would have made it possible to attend a community school. The rapid growth of services for the handicapped in general saw the development of lack of communication between those associated with "regular" and "special" education. This limited the level of trusting working relationships, resulting, in some cases, in real isolation and separation. A need for further development was apparent.

THE NEXT STEP

The Committee on Decentralization and Integration

In 1975, a committee was set up to study the special education program in the elementary schools (the issues at the high schools were somewhat different and would be addressed at another time).

The committee's final report made the following recommendations. Both special education and student services should be decentralized so that most of the special needs of students would be met in their own local school. The responsibility for the organization and delivery of special education within each school should reside with the principal.

It was felt that these changes would allow children with handicaps to have a closer association with neighbourhood friends; that it would open up the opportunity for participation in after-school activities and the development of programs for special skill training. Attendance at neighbourhood schools was more acceptable to parents, particularly since it meant that children from the same family would not have to go to different schools. The decentralization was also seen as an advantage to those schools still designated as centers. With fewer special education students, integration into regular classes — even on a part-time basis — would be easier. Finally, the decentralization program would decrease the amount of time spent on buses as well as the need for lunch programs and supervisors.

These recommendations were not met with strong support. Pointed questions were asked by both teachers and principals: How was this to be accomplished? Was it feasible? Was this really the best approach? How would other students be affected? Where would the support for this program come from?

The questions were taken seriously. No matter how strongly worded and well justified the recommendations were, they were just not relevant if the people who were to implement them were not convinced of their potential effectiveness.

Developments in Student Services and Special Education

A consideration of the question and a closer examination of the situation led to a *Development Plan for Student Services and Special Education*. Taking the then-recently published COPEX report as a point of departure, the plan noted that the *integration of special students into the educational mainstream required the integration of special services with those provided to the mainstream*. It was not enough to have the children together for physical education and art; there was a need for this during reading, writing and arithmetic as well. To merely have both classroom teachers and special educators help the same children fell short of the mark. It was found that the special needs student could only become a real member of a classroom group when his/her teachers acted together as a part of the same educational team.

The development plan suggested a clarification of role as a first step in the development of good working relationships. In fact, one of the initial actions taken was to replace the positions of School Psychologist, elementary level Guidance Counsellor and Special Education Consultant with a new one, the Elementary School Consultant. This new position was to combine the functions of the former ones: to provide direct support to the school-based personnel and to serve as a link to outside services. At the same time, another role was created, that of Special Education and Student Services Animator whose function was to facilitate the process of change through training and organizational development.

Second, a program of professional development was recommended as a way of helping to assure that a high quality of direct and consultative services could be offered to the students.

Third, it was suggested that an on-going evaluation be conducted in order to keep the process "on-track". It would also help to determine both cost-effectiveness to the school commission and cost-benefit to the students and teachers.

Developments in Curriculum Services

The identification and assessment of students having difficulty in academic work had typically been done by means of norm-referenced achievement tests or specialized psycho-educational instruments. With the increased effort to integrate special education students into least restrictive environments problems arose.

Neither norm-referenced tests nor psycho-educational tests reflected the curricular expectations at Baldwin-Cartier. As a result, integrating students was made more difficult because the special education and classroom programs were not well integrated and a common language was lacking. Norm-referenced tests could give grade-level equivalents but could not indicate which skills the students knew and did not know. Thus, their usefulness in planning programs was limited.

Finally norm-referenced tests were often standardized on a population of students who completed their elementary and high school education in twelve years. The eleven-year program used in Québec necessitated some "translation" in using the tests, a procedure not recommended by test constructors.

To respond to these problems, it was decided to develop a set of specific learning objectives based on the minimum requirements of the Baldwin-Cartier curriculum. Each one of these objectives was to have a corresponding criterion-referenced test: one which stated exactly what would be presented to the student, the way in which the student was to demonstrate his/her skill or knowledge, and the standard of achievement that was to be considered a minimum mastery level.

Because the minimal objectives would be based directly on the curriculum, they could be used to provide documentation of the need for special education services. Moreover, they could also be used for the identification of strengths and weaknesses, for goal setting, and the planning of interventions, thus making the link between assessment procedures and program planning more direct.

Once again, it was apparent that the integration of special need students required the integrated functioning and cooperation of all educational services.

The development of minimal objectives and criterion-referenced tests posed a number of questions.

Who would create them? Traditionally Curriculum Services and Special Education had functioned relatively separately yet here was a case where materials, based on the curriculum, were to be used for special education purposes.

Who would use them: resource personnel from outside the school? Special educators? Classroom teachers? Would they be acceptable to the schools?

In response, an "ad hoc" sub-committee of both the Curriculum and Student Services and Special Education departments worked on an interim draft of the objectives. The draft copies were then field-tested during a summer clinic for children with learning disabilities — and were found to be lacking. There was concern that materials developed in isolation from those who would use them are often inappropriate. This was seen as a danger since the on-line people should have a personal feel for and a sense of ownership over such materials if they are to be successfully implemented.

For these reasons, a major consultation project was launched.

Every Special Education Teacher at the elementary level was provided with draft copies of the Minimal Objectives at all levels and invited to examine and comment upon these. In addition, all teachers at each grade were also provided with interim drafts of the objectives for their level and were invited to react to them.

On the basis of the extensive feedback from these teachers, a final draft was developed. This final draft was circulated not only to the two original groups, but also to the teachers of the next grade. This way the Grade 2 teachers for instance, were consulted about whether mastery of those skills designated as Grade 1 Minimal Objectives would be considered an adequate minimum to permit a child to start Grade 2.

The project, initially expected to take a year, has proven much more time consuming and is only now coming to its conclusion. However, the effort seems to have been worthwhile since both the concept of Minimal Objectives and the actual materials themselves have received widespread acceptability and use.

In these ways, much of the groundwork was laid for the further development of the concept of "preparation for integration".

The Feasibility Study

By good fortune the general process of systematic change was greatly facilitated. In September 1977 one of the school commissioners suggested that

> an individualized program be developed for every handicapped child which would include a statement of:
> 1. the child's present level of performance

2. annual goals for the child, including short-term measurable objectives that are related to long-term goals
3. the specific educational services to be provided for the child, and the extent to which the child will be able to participate in regular educational programs
4. appropriate objective criteria and evaluation procedures and schedules verifying annual review of the instructional objectives, and
5. that this statement be presented and discussed between the teacher and the parent, at the beginning and the end of each school year.

A study of the feasibility of this proposal was undertaken at the request of the school board. Developments in the education of the handicapped were reviewed and the following conclusions reached:

> . . . a crucial element in the success of the present proposal is the degree to which the school commissioners and the senior administrative staff will provide their support. More specifically, this would involve the development of policy statements which direct the activities of principals and teachers, public approval of the appropriate implementation of individualized programs (e.g. promotions, professional development opportunities) and the allocation of financial and human resources required for the development, implementation, maintenance and evaluation of individualized instruction for handicapped students.
>
> Curriculum development is required. Currently a teacher with a handicapped student must, in most cases, generate instructional objectives or define those that are available in more precise terms, elaborate or develop tests to evaluate the student's performance on specific objectives and create teaching/learning experiences that relate both to the objectives and the needs of the handicapped students. This is an unreasonable task for teachers in terms of the current allocation of time, skills and energy available for such activities. These resources would have to be made available by the school commission either by purchase, or internal development, or both.
>
> Since a significant proportion of the personnel in Baldwin-Cartier are relatively unsophisticated in the rationale and use of individualized formats, programs of professional development would need to be provided for administrators, teachers and non-teaching professional. These would involve an orientation to the terms of the proposal, a sensitization to its rationale and skill development for its implementation.
>
> Finally, the organization of educational services would need to be modified to focus teachers' time and planning activities towards the development and implementation of individualized instruction. . . . (Bulletin of School Services 1, (3), 1977).

The study went on to indicate that successful implementation of the proposal would require significant changes in the schools. It also recognized that because different sections of the school commission had developed at different rates, action plans should be formulated on a school-by-school and department-by-department basis. It went on to point out that while

changes were required, the then-current resources might be adequate to support the project if priorities were set for curriculum and professional development. The implementation process was projected to take a minimum of five years.

The Feasibility Study, as it came to be known, was accepted enthusiastically by the school commissioners. In fact, they then requested that an action plan be written which would outline the procedures for implementation of the original proposal: "an individualized program of instruction for every handicapped child. . ." That document was to become known as the *Feasibility Study Action Plan*.

METHODS FOR MAINSTREAMING

The planning year

The mandate to write the *Action Plan* was given to a committee whose members represented different levels of functioning within the school commission. Two school commissioners were included, one of whom, an anglophone, had submitted the original request for the *Feasibility Study*. The other, a francophone, was actively involved in teaching at the CEGEP level. The Directors of Student Services and Curriculum Services sat on the committee since their departments would be particularly affected by the recommendations of the *Action Plan*. Because the role of the administrators and their acceptance of the report was crucial to the successful implementation of the Action Plan, an elementary school principal and a high school vice-principal were included as committee members. The committee also included a special education teacher who had worked with both learning-disabled and socially-maladjusted students within a mainstreaming context. Her experiences in trying to integrate students into least restrictive environments was to bring a day-to-day reality to the group. The Coordinator of Special Education functioned as the "responsable" for the committee, bringing to it the perspective of the Ministry as well as the School Commission. Finally, the Animator of Special Education and Student Services served as a "resource person", bringing experience of other "mainstreaming-type" programs to the committee.

At an initial orientation meeting, committee members were provided with literature on the types of programs that had been reviewed in the *Feasibility Study*, and a sub-committee structure was set up for further consultation.

These sub-committees included a group responsible for academic free-flow and self-contained classrooms at the elementary levels, and another one for the high schools, as well as a sub-committee for social free-flow, one at the elementary and one at the high school level. Membership on these sub-committees included members of the *Action Plan* committee as well as special education teachers, classroom teachers, ele-

mentary school consultants, curriculum coordinators and a high school consultant.

The sub-committees were consulted about how the curriculum might be adapted for individualized instruction. They were also asked to identify the financial and other resources that would be required by the school in order to accomplish this end.

After each meeting, the minutes, along with a request for their clarification or modification, were distributed to all those who had participated as well to all members of the *Feasibility Study Action Plan* committee. In this way the participants were assured that their contribution had been accurately received. The findings were then integrated into an interim report to the director-general and this report was also widely disseminated as an article in the *Bulletin of School Services*, an in-house journal that was distributed to all elementary teachers, administrators, non-teaching professionals and school commissioners. Thus, people were kept informed of the progress of the committee; a few even called up with some more input!

By the Spring of 1978, a draft of the final report, to be known as the *Feasibility Study Action Plan*, had been prepared and was ready for presentation to the school commissioners.

However, the committee was reluctant to submit it until it had been very closely examined by the school administrators. Therefore, the due date was extended to the end of the calendar year.

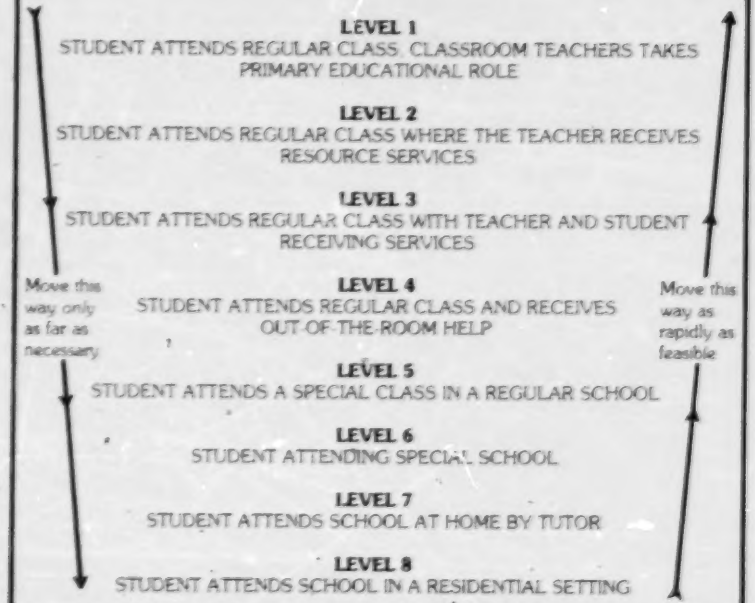
This permitted the presentation of the *Action Plan* to all of the school administrators within the English Section during a three-day conference. During the course of the conference, a step-by-step, item-by-item review of the recommendations was made by the Coordinator of Special Education and Animator. School principals reflected on the issues that would have to be confronted in the process of implementation. Objections were raised and modifications suggested. The outcome was a document that had widespread consensus.

The *Feasibility Study Action Plan* was presented to the school commissioners on December 4, 1978 and was adopted as school commission policy. The English sector was to implement the policy of individualized instruction and integration according to the Feasibility Study Action Plan; the French sector was to do the same, according to plans more suited to their needs.

TABLE I
AN EXAMPLE OF THE FORMAT USED FOR RECOMMENDATIONS

Problem	Recommendation	"Responsable"	Professional Development	Due Date
To the extent that there is a lack of clarity of the status of the recommendations of the action plan, there will be some difficulty in its implementation.	The specific policies and procedures recommended in this action plan should be adopted for implementation.	Director of English Studies	Jan. 1, 1979	

TABLE II
Organizational Model for the Integration of Special Education Students


LEVEL 1
STUDENT ATTENDS REGULAR CLASS. CLASSROOM TEACHERS TAKES PRIMARY EDUCATIONAL ROLE
LEVEL 2
STUDENT ATTENDS REGULAR CLASS WHERE THE TEACHER RECEIVES RESOURCE SERVICES
LEVEL 3
STUDENT ATTENDS REGULAR CLASS WITH TEACHER AND STUDENT RECEIVING SERVICES
Move this way only as far as necessary
LEVEL 4
STUDENT ATTENDS REGULAR CLASS AND RECEIVES OUT-OF-THE-ROOM HELP
Move this way as rapidly as feasible
LEVEL 5
STUDENT ATTENDS A SPECIAL CLASS IN A REGULAR SCHOOL
LEVEL 6
STUDENT ATTENDING SPECIAL SCHOOL
LEVEL 7
STUDENT ATTENDS SCHOOL AT HOME BY TUTOR
LEVEL 8
STUDENT ATTENDS SCHOOL IN A RESIDENTIAL SETTING

Gearheart, B.R., Organization and Administration of Educational Programs for Exceptional Children (Springfield, Ill., Thomas, 1974) p. 242.

The Feasibility Study Action Plan

The Feasibility Study Action Plan was written in terms of the potential problems identified during the course of its development. For each problem, a recommendation was made. The person who would be responsible for the implementation of the recommendations was assigned. The professional or curriculum development that would be required was identified and a due date was established. This format is illustrated in *Table I* where the first recommendation is presented.

The Feasibility Study Action Plan was also divided into three sections: Policies, Procedures, and Organization and Delivery of Services. These reflected the main issues to be addressed in the implementation of the program.

The "Cascade of Educational Services" provided the organizational context into which the Feasibility Study Action Plan was to be implemented. The framework for this model is presented in *Table II*.

The key notion in the use of the cascade system is the concept of the "fit" between the needs of an individual student and the services provided to him/her. In more traditional systems, a student is assessed and receives a label, such as learning disabled. The student is then assigned to the "learning disability program", often a classroom set up to deal with this category of handicap. Thus, there is the possibility that the "fit" between the needs of a particular student and the resources of the program or classroom are less than adequate. For example, the student may have behavioural problems in addition to the learning ones. However, since the program is not set up to deal with difficulties of social adjustment, this aspect of the student's needs may be neglected. Similarly, the student may be able to benefit from a part-time experience in a regular classroom, yet enrolment in the "special" one may make partial integration difficult.

In the cascade system the student may also receive a label. However, the handicapping condition does not necessarily dictate where or how the student receives educational services. These decisions depend more on the "fit" between the individual needs of the student and the resources available to meet them. The student who gets a low score on an intelligence test, demonstrates learning disabilities, and has behavioural difficulties should have a program designed to meet all of those needs. The organizational model provided by the cascade sets the framework for where the services would be offered and the roles to be played by the personnel involved. This additional flexibility is a crucial element in the mainstreaming process.

The cascade system is designed with the ultimate goal of the student attending a regular class where the classroom teacher takes the primary educational role. In reality, the level at which special services are organized should depend on the fit between the needs of the student and the resources available to meet them. To offer a service that is organized

at a lower level than necessary is to neglect the possibilities for growth and development of the child. To offer a service that is organized too high up the cascade, when adequate professional development has not been provided, where essential materials are not available, and where support services are lacking is not mainstreaming. It can only be called "dumping".

Policies

The first recommendation, presented in *Table I* reflects the important question of the credibility of the *Feasibility Study Action Plan*. Both the specific terms of the recommendation and the fact that it was placed first were designed to emphasize its importance.

For similar reasons, the question of the relationship between special education and the rest of the services offered by the School Commission also had to be addressed. Not only did the project have to be taken seriously, there had to be organizational arrangements which would make it operational. For example, how were the needs of special students be served in second language instruction? in physical education? What would the lines of communication be?

In response to such questions it was recommended that the Coordinator of Special Education, in conjunction with the Director of English Studies, write a document outlining how the policies and procedures of the special education program would integrate with other services. While it was recognized that such a document was not meant to be read cover-to-cover, its value was seen as a reference and source of information in response to specific questions.

The document is currently in preparation.

The third recommendation reflected the feeling that there were a number of "loose-ends" in terms of the lack of specificity of policies, which had implications for special education. These included issues like promotion from grade to grade, accelerated progress, demotion, confidentiality of information and record keeping, liaison between elementary and high school, and the development of a make-up year.

In this case the formulation of the policies was left to the Director of English Studies while ratification remained the responsibility of the School Commissioners.

Perhaps the most important policy issue was the actual definition of "preparation for integration" or what others have called mainstreaming. A lack of clarity was seen as leading to confusion in the delivery of services. Thus, the responsibility for the implementation of the policy was given to the Director of English Studies ensuring that:

> All students within Baldwin-Cartier's mandate should receive an 'appropriate educational service' delivered 'to the greatest extent possible' in the 'least restrictive environment'.

The Least Restrictive Environment

The concept of the least restrictive environment was most fundamental. The environment referred to the milieu in which the student would receive his/her education: the physical locale, the other students, the course content, the materials and methods used, and the teaching staff. The regular classroom environment, level I of the cascade, was assumed to provide the best preparation for full participation in the mainstream of life. The academic programs with their high expectations, the modelling of appropriate social behaviour by peers, and the wide variety of experiences offered were identified as crucial factors in such preparation. Where any of these factors were limited, the learning environment was seen as being restricted in its ability to provide the optimal preparation for full participation in society.

At the same time, it was recognized that the demands of the regular classroom were inappropriate for certain students. Their ability to follow the normal routine of the day was different than that of their peer group. They often did not benefit from the learning opportunities presented. In this case, the challenge was to determine the learning environment that would be least restrictive to the particular student's chances of acquiring those skills and knowledge which would facilitate the fullest participation in the mainstream of life.

In practice, the concept of the least restrictive environment was always to be made on the basis of a "match" between the needs of a particular student and the resources immediately available. To do otherwise would be to present an inappropriate learning environment, one that would be either too demanding to be of benefit or too restricted to be able to develop the student's full potential. Thus, not all special needs students were to receive educational services in the regular classroom. Some would have a part-time experience only. Some would attend self-contained special classes. However, the concept of the least restrictive environment would remain a guide for determining the appropriate level of the educational cascade for an individual student.

An Appropriate Educational Service

Given the setting conditions of the least restrictive environment, how was the "appropriate educational service" to be determined?

First, it seemed important to distinguish educational from other services and to define the limits of educational services, since these were to be the prime responsibility of the school commission. Other services were to be arranged on an "ad hoc" or contract basis. Thus, educational services were defined as those which addressed themselves to problems whose nature, or remediation, involved a significant element of learning or the performance of learned skills. These could be applied in the following areas: academic, social or self-help skills, fine and gross motor activity, and language and cognitive development. Widening the limits of service

beyond reading, writing and arithmetic was a commitment to the education of the whole child.

Second, the appropriateness of the educational service was to be judged in terms of the demonstrated success of a particular intervention. This requirement was included because the *Feasibility Study Action Plan* was developed during a period in the history of special education when research data were seriously questioning some of the remedial programs then in common use.

To the Greatest Extent Possible

This part of the policy was to recognize that not every school could provide every service to every child. It meant that alternatives might have to be explored such as moving a student to another school where the appropriate service was available. It also meant that additional resources in terms of materials, support services and professional development would be made available to the schools so that the possibilities for service to students with special needs might be extended.

While the definition of terms was designed to give students with special needs the best chance possible to join the mainstream of society, it was also recognized that there might always be a discrepancy between the ability of the schools to provide services and the needs of a particular student. Therefore, a recommendation was made which, in fact, restated a then current policy: the Coordinator of Special Education would be responsible for providing support services to a school for seeking an appropriate placement elsewhere. The support could take the form of human or material resources currently available or development programs which would ensure that the option of removing students from "least restrictive environments" was to be used as seldom as possible. Thus, it was recommended that:

> the School Board should embark upon a general plan of professional and program development with the long-term goal of being able to approximate those conditions cited in the educational literature which facilitate the integration of students with special needs and the provision of individualized programs of instruction for them.

The goals for professional development were ambitious. A list of competencies which had been drawn up by the Deans of Schools of Education, as part of the implementation of PL 94-142 in the United States, was consulted. This was to be the basic reference for skills regular teachers would need in order to accommodate special-needs students in their classrooms. In addition to teaching ability, consulting skills would become more and more essential to the special educator, free-flow instruction and self-contained classes.

In-service for principals was to be oriented towards an understanding of the exceptionality of students served by Baldwin-Cartier, the implementation of special education programs at the school-level, and the determina-

tion of needs for professional development, curriculum materials and other supports within the school.

The Deans' list was also the basis of the professional development program for the Student Service personnel where short-term family intervention and the use of community resources was emphasized. Furthermore, program coordinators responsible for such critical areas as mathematics and language arts, were to be able to write minimal objectives and criterion-referenced tests, and to assist teachers in the development and use of corresponding teaching/learning materials.

Finally, provision was made to have professional development programs available for senior administrators and even school commissioners. People couldn't be expected to support the *Action Plan* until they were familiar with it.

The professional development program was seen as the most crucial investment to be made in the implementation of the *Action Plan*. Without teachers and support staff who feel confident in their ability to integrate students into least restrictive environments and provide individualized programs of instruction, there can be no appropriate services.

At the same time teachers need tools to work successfully. Thus, the development of the minimal objectives and criterion-referenced tests was incorporated into the *Action Plan* as the responsibility of the Director of Curriculum Services in conjunction with the Coordinator of Special Education. It was also recommended that the objectives be made available to all, including students and their parents.

The formulation and implementation of these policies set the basic conditions for successful mainstreaming. The neglect of these conditions runs the risk of "dumping".

The clarification of procedures was another factor judged critical to the success of the *Action Plan*.

The Individualized Educational Plan was seen as the best way of facilitating the organization and delivery of special education services. Its main function was to be a bridge of communication between those involved in a particular student's education. It would confirm, in writing, the plans and working relationships that had been agreed upon. This use of the individualized education plan differs from the practice in other settings where a program is prepared in relative isolation from those responsible for its implementation. The "grass roots" approach was adopted in an attempt to achieve two goals.

First, initial meetings and discussions would serve as an opportunity to establish how people, including the student and his/her family, would work with each other: Who would be responsible for what? How would responsibilities be carried out? What would the channels of communication be? Second, the written document would serve as a support for human memory, especially in cases where much coordination of activity

was required. In the same way, it could provide a point of departure for dealing with conflicts, misunderstandings and program changes.

The Individualized Educational Plan was also designed to integrate the paper work and record keeping required as a part of the processes of referral, assessment, intervention and report writing. Since these functions had to be performed anyway, the Individualized Educational Plan was to provide a systematic format so that the documentation would be more useful.

Organization and delivery of services

The committee found that the clarification of roles was an issue whose importance was largely underestimated. The question "Who is responsible?" and "What does being responsible for that really mean?" pointed to possibilities for confusion and ineffectiveness. In the same way, it was often easy to make assumptions about certain role functions and find out, only too late, that others had perceived the role differently. Thus, recommendations were made clarifying the roles of the Director of English Studies, the Coordinator of Special Education, competent specialists, the school principal, the special education teacher, the classroom teacher and support personnel. Again, the major emphasis on people and the ways in which they come together to help students was a reflection of the idea that the integration of children with special needs requires the integration of the services provided for them.

Finally, the *Action Plan* addressed itself to the steps that would be taken in service delivery. Where they were well defined, with a clear assignment of responsibilities, students were well served; where guidelines were vague or non-existent, the chances increased that services would be inappropriate or ineffective, entangled with red-tape and frustration.

Although other possibilities were allowed for, the sequence was most likely to start with the classroom teacher identifying a student as being potentially eligible for a special service. This was to be followed by an administrative decision by the principal, in consultation with the special educator, to determine the student's eligibility for the service.

Depending on the school, these two steps may have represented a departure from what had become common practice. First, there was to be much stronger reliance on the classroom teacher — the on-line person — to play a key role in the process. Second, the administrator was to have a very active part in the decision-making for each student.

Given a decision that special services were needed, the parents were to be informed and involved. In addition to being a matter of courtesy, this also represents a further step in the bringing together of those most interested in the progress of the student and lays the groundwork for a successful Individualized Educational Plan.

The actual assessment of the student's level of functioning was to follow with the greatest emphasis placed on the testing and observations of those

closest to the student, the teacher and the special educator. Again, this represented a shift in some of the functions of support personnel like the school psychologist.

The idea was that with adequate training and support much of the information needed both for administrative decisions and pedagogical planning could be generated at the school level. In this way, "waiting list time" could be eliminated and those involved in the remedial program would have a very personal feel for the needs of the student. Of course, where the input of specialists was required, it was made available. However, the general orientation was to work with those most consistently in contact with the student. For example, while the Speech Pathologist or Elementary School Consultant would take responsibility for speech or behavioural assessments, much emphasis was to be placed on language or behavioural samples taken by the classroom teacher or special educator. Similarly, while special education interventions were clearly the responsibility of the special educator, the Individualized Educational Plan might be designed in a way that places him/her in a consultative role.

Finally, the steps for ending a special service were outlined in some detail. Again, it was to be the principal, in consultation with his/her staff, who would do the decision-making.

Where the recommended procedures represented a departure from what had been the common practice, professional development was to be provided. For example, professional development directed toward the use of Minimal Objectives would allow the teacher to be much more specific about a student's strengths and weaknesses, and a principal much more comfortable about mandating special education involvement. Without this type of input, close working relationship between the in-school "team" would be in jeopardy and, more likely than not, the special educator would be faced with the unenviable task of trying to do too much with too little information or authority.

Professional Development

Given the substantial demands being made on in-school and support personnel, the question might be asked: "How do the recommendations of the *Feasibility Study Action Plan* become implemented?" Some of the steps have already been described. For example the credibility lent by school commissioners and senior administrators gave great impetus to the development of operating procedures and materials, which in turn facilitated the process of change. These, however, are setting conditions. They make the success of a professional development program more probable; they do not guarantee it.

In the beginning, the in-service workshop was used as the main avenue towards skill development. However, it quickly became apparent that value of this format was more in the area of orientation and information-giving than an actual preparation for doing anything. In fact, the initial

meetings with the special education teachers and the principals seemed to raise more questions than could be answered. "How will the changes in roles and procedures be accepted?" "Where will we get the time to do this?" "Isn't the Individualized Educational Plan just a lot of paperwork?" "Shouldn't teachers be teaching, not writing?" "With classroom teachers taking a more active role, what will happen to special education jobs?" "Is this really any different from what we've been doing for years?"

These are the kinds of legitimate questions that can't be answered in a meaningful way in large group workshops. What make sense in one school, with its needs and resources, may not be reasonable in another.

For these reasons, the professional development program placed less emphasis on workshops, and more on visiting successful programs, developing projects with the school commission, and providing on-site, long-term consultation and training. For example, much of the initial work in the use of the Individualized Educational Plan and the least restrictive environment came from visits to model programs in Vermont. At the Shelbourne Village School, teachers were able to talk to teachers, to see the "hands-on" action and to get a feel for the process of change needed to implement the program in Quebec. Visiting a working model has the advantage of being able to see that "mainstreaming" is essentially a human process with many shades of gray, a vision that the cut-and-dried nature of a talk or book or film has difficulty in communicating. Visits also serve to confirm that a good job is being done "back home". Being able to remove onself from the day-to-day demands of teaching allows a perspective-taking, including the appreciation of one's own strengths and needs for development.

Participation in projects has been an important vehicle for professional development. When one of the elementary schools was chosen to pilot the *Feasibility Study Action Plan*, learning became meaningful because it dealt with real problems that had to be faced on a day-to-day basis. Role clarification did not have to be explained in the abstract. The principal had a number of occasions to take the initiative in supporting the special education policy. The classroom teachers had their own students with whom to be concerned. The special educators had very real consultative and direct service roles to take with their colleagues. The Elementary School Consultant and the Animator had to provide direct support, modelling and feedback on a continuing basis.

Similarly, the development of the final form of the Individualized Educational Plan and its use grew in tandem. The "fine-tuning" of formats and procedures by those who would be implementing the plans made the whole notion of individualization more realistic and acceptable. By the same token, the process of development itself proved to be a valuable learning experience for the participants. For example, the need for and the writing of a manual of guidelines to accompany the Individualized Educational Plan evolved directly from such a project. It was also reflected in the introduction of the Individualized Educational Report.

A second such project was initiated at the high school level. Here, it was apparent that the needs of some of the students lay more in their behavioural and social skills than in the traditional academic areas. Attention to these needs presented problems. There were no minimal objectives or criterion-referenced evaluation procedures available for initial assessments and goal setting. The strengths of the special educators often lay more in academic than in social skill development. Procedures for providing services to these students were not without difficulties. For example, should a student demonstrating behavioural problems be handled by the vice-principal in charge of discipline or should he/she be perceived as an individual having motivational or social learning deficits?

The project committee consisted of special educators responsible for students with social-adjustment problems, a high school vice-principal, the coordinator and animator for special education. Again, instead of focussing on the abstract principles of social learning theory and psychological assessment, the committee attacked the practical issues of identifying the social skills a student needs to "make it" in high school. The experience of working together on these problems became a source of meaningful professional development.

Pilot projects can also demonstrate how the *Feasibility Study Action Plan* can be implemented on a local level where the "rules of the game" are the same as those in the visitor's school. It provides a powerful answer to the question "I can see how they can do it with their resources, but how can we do it with ours?"

Another strength of this more personalized approach to professional development is that it provides a whole new set of trainers who are both experienced and more credible to their colleagues than outside "experts". This was demonstrated when it came time to disseminate the elementary school pilot project. Workshop time was available but it seemed difficult to compress six months of work into a one-day experience. To bridge the gap, an exercise was invented which simulated the development and implementation of an Individualized Educational Plan for Joe Green, a mythical student who had almost every handicapping condition possible. All of the elementary level special education teachers worked in small groups and using information provided, played out specific roles of three people involved in writing an I.E.P.: Ruth Red, the classroom teacher, Bonnie Blue, the special educator and Tom Tan, the school principal. Those who had participated in the pilot project were able to serve as consultants to the small groups during the course of the exercise and share their own experiences in the discussion that followed.

The task was difficult and time insufficient. However, having resource people available who had actually lived through the development and implementation of the Individualized Educational Plans made the experience more realistic and meaningful. At the same time, "trying the process out" with people from other schools raised issues that had not surfaced in the pilot project situation.

No matter how useful visits and project work proved to be, the critical professional development activity was the in-school follow-up. No workshop or visit was ever provided without the offer of follow-up on an on-going basis. This personalized approach for teachers proved to be essential in helping them to implement the *Feasibility Study Action Plan* in their own school.

The in-school follow-ups, conducted mostly by the animator and elementary school consultants, became mini-projects. In the use of the Individualized Educational Plan, the key people at the school would be convened, real problems would be discussed, plans made and implemented. The on-going consultation by the resource personnel provided additional occasions for professional development through suggestions, role-playing and demonstrations. As teachers and administrators became more expert, they began to make suggestions regarding the Minimal Objectives, the Individualized Educational Plans and the operating procedures. These in turn, would be shared with colleagues in other schools. The result, for the most part, has been a sense of confidence on the part of those who have participated and an ability to carry on with minimal input from resource personnel.

The professional development activities described so far have been internal to the school commission. There are, of course, many other learning opportunities such as those provided by universities, conferences and workshops. Those provided by a school commission have the advantage of being very consistent with the needs and directions of its schools; the disadvantage resides in the limited resources available at the local level to provide a sufficiently wide range of learning experiences with a variety of resource personnel. These are available outside the schools but they run the risk of not providing exactly what is needed.

This was the dilemma in which McGill University's Faculty of Education and Baldwin-Cartier's English sector found themselves. There was a desire on the part of many to take the M.Ed. in Special Education, yet the feeling was that it might not provide the skills people needed. As a result, a cooperative project was launched between the university and the school commission. The Faculty of Education took major responsibility for course work and the school commission designed and supervised the summer clinic and internship experiences. The first group of students will graduate in 1981 and, while the question of continuation is being studied carefully, this type of cooperative effort remains an important option in the area of professional development.

METHODS FOR MAINSTREAMING: SOME GENERAL PRINCIPLES

Any change is difficult. There are always some factors which maintain the status quo and others that work against specific modifications.

This is particularly true for changes in educational services which allow for mainstreaming, especially the integration into the schools of students with new types of problems.

The general principles of change used in the *Feasibility Study Action Plan* have included the establishment of goals, the appreciation of education as a system of services and the tailoring of change procedures to a particular educational system.

Goals and Goal Setting

Since change is difficult, it's important to set clear goals at the beginning of the process. This facilitates decision-making about such issues as, "What should we do next?" and, "We seem to be lost; how can we regain perspective and get back on track?"

Some of the facilitating factors for goal-setting have already been discussed: precise definitions of terms, and consultation and consensus with those who will be involved. There are, however, additional aspects to the process that deserve attention. The long-term goal of developing educational services for children with special needs is so complex that subgoals have to be articulated. The problem then centers on the sequencing and organization of these short-term objectives so that they work together and fragmentation is avoided. For example, the allocation of special funds for pilot or demonstration project is usually attractive to a school since it represents a response to an identified need. Problems for long-term goals can arise, however, when such projects are fitted so closely to the needs and resources of a particular school that dissemination to others becomes problematic. For example, in the development of the social skills program at the high school level, certain parts of the project, such as the skills lists and evaluation procedures, are transferable from one school to another. Others, such as administrative procedures are not, due to the different organizational structures of the schools. Thus, goal setting may have to occur at two levels. The first one will concern the solution of immediate and pressing problems. The second will involve determining how the short-term goal fits with the long-term one.

Another aspect of goal-setting is the relationship between the long-term objectives and the means used to achieve them. There is a natural temptation to make use of currently available resources rather than search for additional funding or ask people to make significant changes in their role or function. This makes sense in that no change is the easiest change of all, and, in some cases, quite appropriate. On the other hand, it may be crucial for the long-term goal that significant modifications do take place. Change of this kind can be disconcerting. The professional identities of teachers, administrators and resource personnel may experience discomfort. Shifts in budgets and policy priorities can change the status and prestige of specific programs. However, the careful consideration of how much change is required and the specific nature of the change them-

selves, can, in the long run, be justified. For example, there was a significant amount of resistance to the use of Individualized Educational Plans when they were first introduced. They were seen as requiring additional paper work and other "administrivia". In fact, all of the schools had some form of individualized educational programming already in effect. It was not until the Individualized Educational Plan was actually given a try that its usefulness was really appreciated. The need for change had been demonstrated, so its success became more probable.

Education as a system of services

The process of change in educational programs requires a broad view of all the components which work together in the delivery of services. To focus exclusively on individuals is to obscure the forest for the trees. Imagine being a television cameraman at a sports event or theatrical performance. To train the lens exclusively on only one of the players makes it difficult to understand his/her actions. Movements seem to be random, motivations are difficult to discern, and emotions appear capricious. We have to be able to appreciate the whole situation in order to understand the individual.

In the same way that the activity of a single player does not make sense independently of the context of the total event, neither can the learning of an individual student be appreciated without taking into account the school system which he/she attends.

In the final analysis, all of the components of the school system have an influence on the learning of individual students. These include policies, procedures, human and material resources, etc. To ignore any one of them or the ways in which they inter-relate may, in the long-run, prevent the achievement of the goals for more than just a few students. For example, the credibility of the *Feasibility Study Action Plan* was greatly enhanced by the decision of the school commission to allocate time, money and human resources to its development. Thus, the interface between the policy makers and those who would ultimately have to implement the program ran smoothly and the process of change was facilitated. By contrast, when in the course of the implementation of the *Feasibility Study Action Plan* the role and function of Student Service personnel associated with the Ministry of Social Affairs, i.e. school nurses and social workers, was overlooked, duplication occurred and confusion in the integration of services was jeopardized.

A second aspect of appreciating education as a system of services is the identification of forces which tend to maintain the status quo and those which facilitate change. To neglect these forces is to invite unanticipated resistance or to miss taking advantage of facilitating factors. When it was anticipated that the *Feasibility Study Action Plan* would be subject to resistance by school administrators, its presentation to the school commissioners was delayed until consensus had been achieved. By the same token the speed with which the social skills project was launched at the

high school level was due, in great part, to the energy and enthusiasm expressed by teachers there.

Setting up task forces

It is very difficult, if not impossible, for one person, or an isolated group, to effect change in a school system. This is probably one of the reasons why the task-force has been so popular. However, there are some guidelines that have proven useful. First, the task force should have a definite mandate and termination date. For example, the *Feasibility Study Action Plan* Committee had a clear mandate to translate the principles stated in the original Feasibility Study into action.

The question of a termination date, or due dates in general, is also important since it provides a clear impetus for keeping the momentum going.

Second, membership on such committees should allow for a comprehensive representation of all those who will ultimately be affected by the change. One of the weaknesses of the *Feasibility Study Action Plan* Committee was that it lacked a classroom teacher, a parent, or a student. On the other hand, group size is also important in that group effectiveness tends to decrease as its size increases. Thus it is important to assure that access to the task-force is available. This was accomplished in practical terms through the vehicle of sub-committees. An additional option might have been to have an "open-chair" for interested individuals to join the committee from time to time.

The consultative process

This was probably the most exciting aspect of the *Feasibility Study Action Plan*. At the very least it was a way of sharing information. In addition, however, the idea of having a number of "rounds" of consultation proved to have other advantages. First, it gave the participants a better feel for what the real issues were and whether or not their suggestions were practical. Second, it was a way of coming up with better ideas than those which the smaller group could have generated on its own. This was particularly evident in the development of the Individualized Educational Plan, where teacher input did much to improve formats and operating procedures. Finally, when those consulted became aware that the process was a genuine search for feedback, a personal feel for the issues would often result. This sense of ownership became important in times of stress. The reaction was more likely to be "How can I help solve the problem?" rather than "It's your problem — you solve it!"

Support for change

While any process of change depends on the priorities set as to how resources are allocated, there is also a need for support to be demonstrated on a more personal level. From time to time, commissioners have shown a direct interest by visiting schools and meeting with the staff.

Senior administrators have taken an active part in planning meetings, workshops and reviews of progress. School principals have followed up on their part of the implementation process.

Without these kinds of support, it is hard to imagine how those closest to the students — the classroom and special education teachers — would feel comfortable in making the kinds of changes that have been described.

The comprehensive and systematic nature of an action plan

Just as it is difficult to appreciate a ball game by focussing on one player, so is it unlikely that an action plan will have a great chance of success if it is fragmented and haphazard. The elementary school pilot project is a case in point. Because it was based on a small group of people who could meet face-to-face, it was possible to work out the details of individualized educational plans and working relationships. Doing this on a commission-wide basis, limits the possibility for personal contact. The fact that there was a working model available with which to create the Joe Green exercise permitted a dissemination process.

Another advantage to this type of action plan is that it provides a point of departure for dealing with the unanticipated. At about the same time as the *Feasibility Study Action Plan* was to be implemented, the English section of the commission began to make some radical shifts in programming by introducing a partial French-immersion program. On the one hand, this was seen as particularly important to special-needs students within the Quebec context. On the other hand, identifying their least restrictive environment became much more complex. While this problem is far from being resolved, the Action Plan has provided a context for responding to the question: "What do we do now?"

Implementation of the *Feasibility Study Action Plan* continues to be an on-going experience. Despite initial attempts to anticipate all possible problems, some things were not taken into account. Some of the original due dates were overly optimistic. Some of the proposed role changes had a very serious flaw — they failed to take into account a basic respect for the professional preferences of people already in the system. The problems created by decreasing enrolments have affected Special Education Services. However, because the organizational framework of the *Feasibility Study Action Plan* was structured to allow for change, such problems are not insurmountable.

Five years later we can say with confidence that more children with special needs are being better served. And because changes have been planned and effected slowly and thoughtfully, there is good reason to be confident that they will continue to evolve. Children will benefit as the fit between needs and services becomes better and better.

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